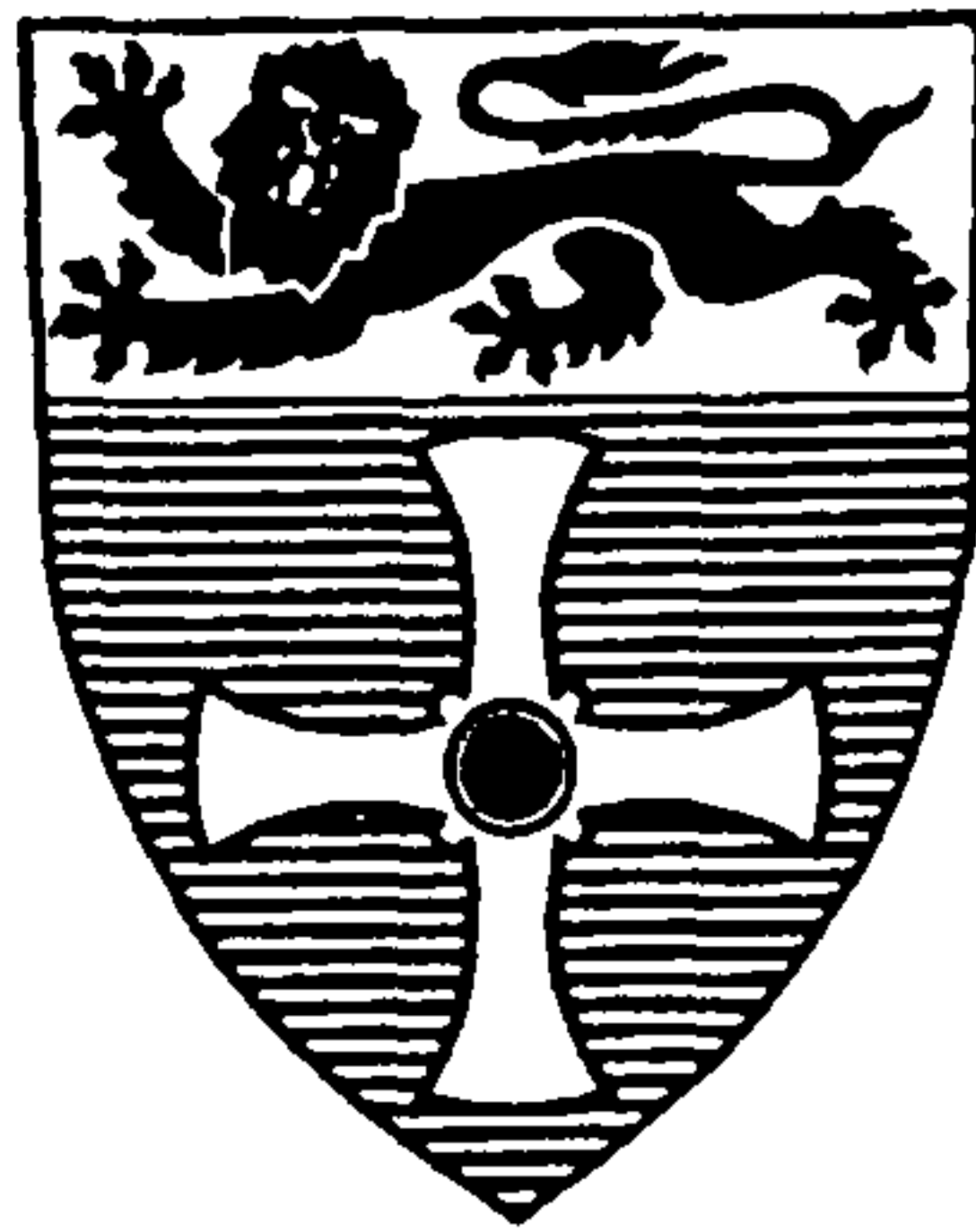


UNIVERSITY OF  
NEWCASTLE UPON TYNE



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

‘IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING: POLICY AND  
PRACTICE WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO  
THE UNITED KINGDOM’.

BY

MARLENY JIMENEZ

This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the  
Degree of Doctor in Philosophy

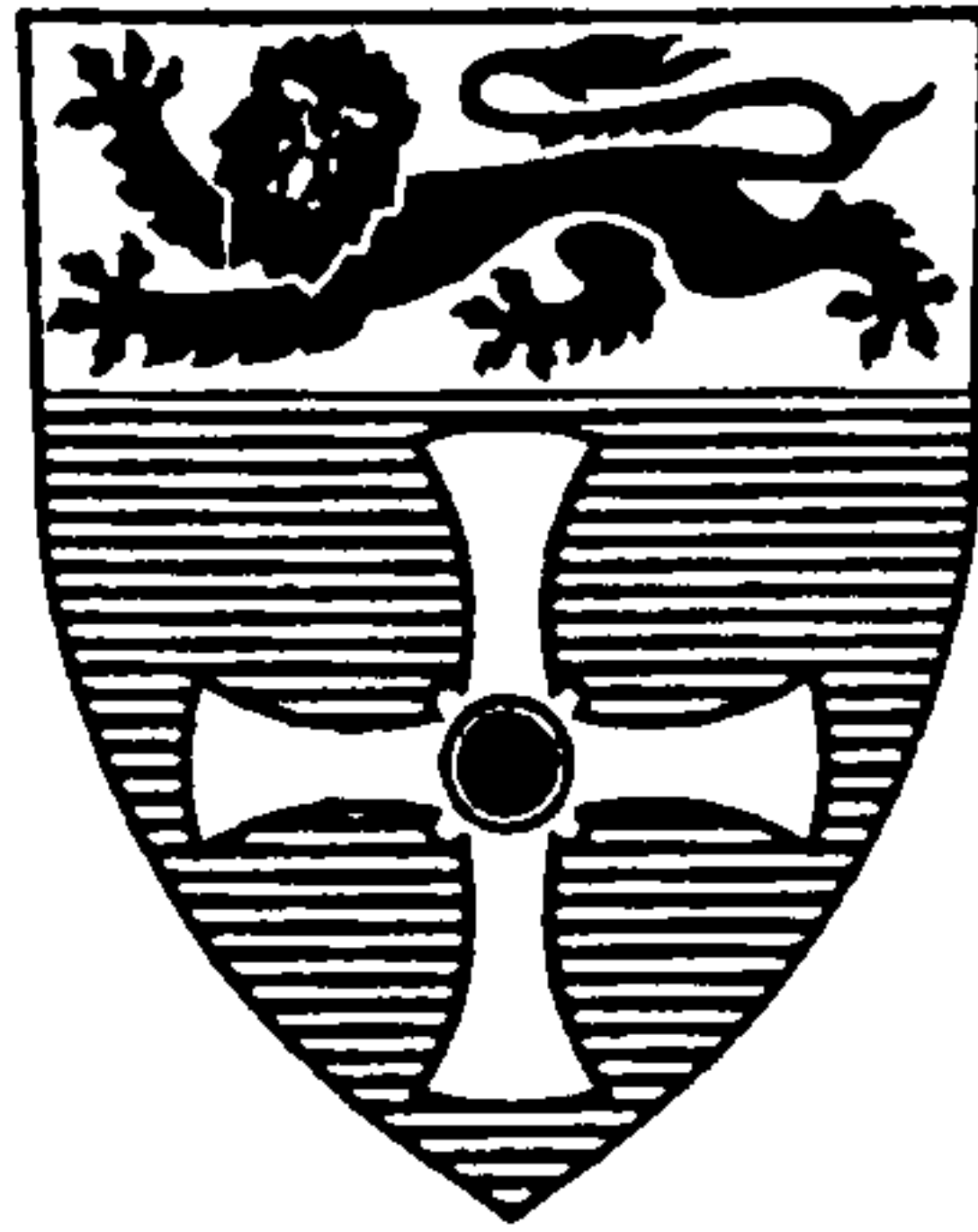
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I certify that all material presented in this thesis which is not my own work has been identified and that no material which is included has been submitted for any other award or qualification

Signed: Anthony Timmer  
Date: 3 / 7 / 2001



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This thesis is especially dedicated to my beloved father who God took away from me shortly before the day of my Viva Voce. His love, interest in my success, and encouragement were always beyond value.

## ABSTRACT

This research explores the course of and teachers' access to In-service Training (INSET), principally in the United Kingdom (England and Wales), and to a minor extent in Colombia.

Within the UK context, a first focus concerns the history, developing theories and policies behind the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) of teachers. It concentrates especially on the period after the Educational Reform Act (ERA) 1988 and the introduction of the National Curriculum (NC). A second focus targets cases in various regions, at both, institutional (Local Education Authorities (LEAs), schools, etc) and individual (advisers, etc) levels. It explores how INSET works in practice.

A multi-method approach consisting of questionnaires, interviews, observation and documentary analysis help to give a detailed picture of the situation of INSET/CPD for teachers (e.g., Modern Foreign language, and other subject areas.) during the period covered by this research (1995-1999). The institutions (e.g. LEAs, etc.) as providers of INSET, and the schools and teachers as clients of the service makes the relationships between providers, clients, and the Central government a principal theme. Some relevant issues arose from this, e.g., some implicit tensions between LEAs and University Departments of Education (UDES) as competitors in the provision of INSET. Some apprehension was also identified among some of the providers of the service (e.g., LEAs and HEI especially)) concerning the Teacher Training Agency's (TTA) administration and INSET, etc. Also, teachers appeared to feel threatened by strict regulations and surveillance as a consequence of the NC and the ERA 1988.

The findings show, among other things, an increasing number of opportunities for teachers' access to INSET in the UK. Parallel to this, the profession faces some diminished local flexibility regarding allocation, funding, and actual provision of CPD, given that the indicators and criteria are sometimes established at a distance, e.g., by the TTA, or by the politicians. Teachers' freedom to determine their own preferred INSET has been progressively limited by bureaucratic and financial constraints, which allow for rare secondment and little sponsorship to undertake award bearing courses. On the other hand, a more school-based training has become available. This important development, however, can put teachers, middle and senior management in schools under pressure due to a lack of funding, heavy workloads, lack of professional input from outside speakers, etc. SBI can leave them out of context (e.g., scientific knowledge and advances as schools do not deal with this focus themselves).

The thesis concludes with a brief discussion of the situation of INSET in Colombia after the 4 latest reforms occurred in the last decade. Some possible future developments for INSET are derived by implication from the UK study and will be possibly implemented at two different stages and levels through top-down (T), bottom-up (B), and interactional (I) modes, i.e., a possible Colombian Teacher Training Agency (TTA), and the structural reform of the Office for Enrolment and Promotion (OFEREP) towards a General Teaching Council (GTC) at a first stage; a widespread introduction of School-based INSET (SBI) coupled with an emerging developmental (bottom-up (B)) mode of INSET involving AR, at a second stage. Discussion of these proposals takes account of difficulties of adaptation and cultural transfer.

# ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS FOR THE UK

<i>ACSTT</i>	<i>Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers</i>
<i>ALL</i>	<i>Language Learning Association</i>
<i>ALT</i>	<i>Association of Teachers and Lecturers (magazine)</i>
<i>AR</i>	<i>Action Research</i>
<i>BA</i>	<i>Bachelor of Art</i>
<i>BC</i>	<i>British Council</i>
<i>BBC</i>	<i>British Broad Casting</i>
<i>BERA</i>	<i>British Education Research Association</i>
<i>CATE</i>	<i>Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education</i>
<i>CEP</i>	<i>Centro Experimental Piloto</i>
<i>CCPD</i>	<i>Centre for Continuing Professional Development</i>
<i>CPD</i>	<i>Continuing Professional Development</i>
<i>DE</i>	<i>Department of Education</i>
<i>DES</i>	<i>Department of Education and Science</i>
<i>DfEE</i>	<i>Department for Education and Employment</i>
<i>DENI</i>	<i>Department of Education in Northern Ireland</i>
<i>DEPE</i>	<i>Decennial Plan for Education</i>
<i>EB</i>	<i>Exam Board</i>
<i>ED</i>	<i>European Dimension</i>
<i>ERA</i>	<i>Education Reform Act</i>
<i>ESRC</i>	<i>Economic and Social Research Council</i>
<i>FLA</i>	<i>Foreign Language Assistant</i>
<i>GCSE</i>	<i>General Certificate of Secondary Education</i>
<i>GEMS</i>	<i>Guidelines in Education and Management Series</i>
<i>GEST</i>	<i>Grant for Education Support and Training</i>
<i>GMS</i>	<i>Grant Maintained Schools</i>
<i>GRIDS</i>	<i>Guidelines for Review and Internal Development of Schools</i>
<i>GRIST</i>	<i>Grant Related In-service Training</i>

<i>GTC</i>	<i>General Teaching Council</i>
<i>HEADLAMP</i>	<i>Head teachers' Leadership, Administration and Management Programme</i>
<i>HEI</i>	<i>Higher Education Institutions</i>
<i>HFCE</i>	<i>Higher Education Funding Council (England)</i>
<i>HoD</i>	<i>Head of Department</i>
<i>HMI</i>	<i>Her Majesty Inspectorate</i>
<i>IAS</i>	<i>Inspectors and Advisory Service</i>
<i>ICT</i>	<i>Information Computing Technology</i>
<i>IDEP</i>	<i>Institutional Development Plans</i>
<i>INSET</i>	<i>In-service Education and Training</i>
<i>INDE</i>	<i>INSET Department</i>
<i>ITT</i>	<i>Initial Teacher Training</i>
<i>LAP</i>	<i>Low Attainner Project</i>
<i>LEA</i>	<i>Local Education Authority</i>
<i>LEATGS</i>	<i>LEA Training Grants Scheme</i>
<i>LIB</i>	<i>LEA-based INSET</i>
<i>LMS</i>	<i>Local Management of Schools</i>
<i>MFL</i>	<i>Modern Foreign Languages</i>
<i>NC</i>	<i>National Curriculum</i>
<i>NCfSL</i>	<i>National College for School Leadership</i>
<i>NOF</i>	<i>New Opportunities Fund</i>
<i>NPQSL</i>	<i>National Professional Qualification for Subject Leaders</i>
<i>NPQH</i>	<i>National Professional Qualification Headship</i>
<i>(N)QTS</i>	<i>(New) Qualified Teacher Status</i>
<i>NUT</i>	<i>National Union of Teachers</i>
<i>NVQ</i>	<i>National Vocational Qualification</i>
<i>NVQH</i>	<i>National Vocational Qualification for Headship</i>
<i>OFSTED</i>	<i>Office for Standards in Education</i>
<i>PGCE</i>	<i>Post-graduate Certificate in Education</i>
<i>QAS</i>	<i>Quality Assurance Service</i>



<i>RAP</i>	<i>Reflective Action Planning</i>
<i>SC</i>	<i>School Council</i>
<i>SBI</i>	<i>School-based INSET</i>
<i>SDP</i>	<i>School Development Plan</i>
<i>SAC</i>	<i>Subject Academic Category</i>
<i>SENCO</i>	<i>Special Education Needs Coordinator</i>
<i>SD</i>	<i>Staff Development</i>
<i>TC</i>	<i>Teacher Centre</i>
<i>TD</i>	<i>Teachers' Development</i>
<i>TES</i>	<i>Teachers Education Supplement</i>
<i>TGAT</i>	<i>Task Group on Assessment and Testing</i>
<i>TTA</i>	<i>Teacher Training Agency</i>
<i>TVEI</i>	<i>Technical Vocational and Educational Initiative</i>
<i>TRIST</i>	<i>Teachers Related In-service Training</i>
<i>UBI</i>	<i>University-based INSET</i>
<i>UDE</i>	<i>University Department of Education</i>

## ABREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS FOR COLOMBIA

<i>ASOCOPI</i>	<i>Asociacion Colombiana de Profesores de Ingles</i>
<i>CEP</i>	<i>Centro Experimental Piloto</i>
<i>CPS</i>	<i>Capacitacion de Profesores de Secundaria (Secondary Teachers' Training)</i>
<i>ICETEX</i>	<i>Instituto Colombiano de Credito Educativo en el Exterior</i>
<i>ICFES</i>	<i>Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educacion Superior</i>
<i>INEM</i>	<i>Instituto Nacional de Educacion Media</i>
<i>GLE</i>	<i>General Law for Education (Ley General de la Educacion)</i>
<i>OFEREP</i>	<i>Office for Enrolment, Registration &amp; Promotion (Oficina de Escalafon Docente)</i>
<i>MOE/MEN</i>	<i>Ministry of Education Office/Ministerio de Educacion Nacional</i>
<i>NACOSE</i>	<i>National Council for Higher Education (Consejo Nacional de Educacion Superior)</i>
<i>PM</i>	<i>Pedagogical Movement</i>
<i>QUIPED</i>	<i>Quinquennial Plan for Education (Plan Quinquenal de la Educacion)</i>

<i>RECO</i>	<i>Regional Committee (Comite Regional)</i>
<i>REJU</i>	<i>Regional Junta (Junta Regional)</i>
<i>SOE</i>	<i>Secretary of Education Office</i>
<i>USA</i>	<i>United States of America</i>



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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

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### 1.0 Preamble

There is a growing acceptance in many countries that the professional development of teachers is not only a matter of simply the initial phase of training, but rather that teachers benefit from on-going support and development throughout their careers. In this way, various forms of In-service support have come to be seen as increasingly important. The present study focuses on developments in particular In-service training for secondary teachers in the UK (the term UK is used throughout the study mainly as a convenient abbreviation for England and Wales) and concludes with a brief contrastive look at the situation of INSET in Colombia. Reflecting the author's professional background and interests, UK's teachers of Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) figure largely, but not exclusively, in the teachers' survey sections.

It has been said that research is conducted to solve problems and to expand knowledge (Drew, 1980:4), and that researchers are people keen to enhance their own understandings.

In education, effective teaching depends on those professionals who are willing to keep abreast of educational initiatives world wide, to undertake enquiry in order to enhance their knowledge, interests and skills, and to propose and carry out curricular changes. In turn curricular changes almost inevitably involve new contents as well as new teaching strategies. But new teaching strategies are extremely difficult to learn, especially when these cut across old habits and assumptions, and invalidate hard won skills (Stenhouse, 1975: 25). It seems wrong then to think that teachers are in the best position to develop new strategies independently on the basis of common professional skills.

In Modern Foreign Language (MFL) teaching, for example, active participatory approaches are particularly valuable in assuring learning acquisition (The World Conference on Education in Jomtien, 1990), and allowing learners to reach their fullest potential (Bevan, 1994). From this viewpoint, teachers are not simply transmitters of knowledge. They support, encourage and promote students' participation in their own learning. Pupils then develop skills, share ideas with peers and teachers and also construct their own knowledge. Such an approach calls for pro-active teachers, professionally prepared and open-minded to changes in technology, contents



and techniques; teachers ready to change their routines in lesson planning, to discuss with colleagues both subject and technological issues. Most importantly, they have to be able to regain control of their own teaching after reflecting on it. To attain these conditions, they need to be provided with support and opportunities for training while in service (INSET), and mainly, to have freedom to introduce and implement the new approaches and techniques they have learnt during the training. This imperative applies to all subject areas. There is some evidence that teachers are more responsive to professional training after they are in-service rather than before. As a result, the profession is shifting towards the conception of in-service education as continuous professional development (Ben-Peretz, M, et al. in Day, C et al., 1990).

### **1.1. IMPORTANCE OF THIS RESEARCH**

The present study pursues an in-depth investigation of the course of and access to the continuous professional development (CPD) of teachers in the UK. A further and important objective is to consider the possible relevance of lessons learned in the UK context for developments in Colombia.

The study *first* provides some historical background of the education of teachers before and after the Educational Reform Act (ERA) 1988 in the UK, which legislated for a National Curriculum, and set in context both Initial and In-service teacher training. ERA is taken as a reference point due to the fundamental changes it brought about in attitude as well as in structure in respect of teachers' development. The act changed both the nature and provision of Teacher Training; along with the control and financial aspects of Higher Education (HE) which has been historically the principal provider of teacher's training in the UK. The present research thus reflects trends of, policy, and practice with a third emerging element, i.e. planning that would identify gaps between them. As a result, it is hoped that a possible new and improved mode for INSET may emerge from this study (see 3.4 & 6.1.2, 7.7 & Ap.E3). *Secondly*, the study briefly describes the situation of education and the teachers in Colombia, concentrating mostly on how their In-service training operates after the four latest reforms of 1988, 1993, 1994, and 1996. Some possible implications from the UK study bearing upon the Colombian context are finally suggested at national, regional and local levels (see fig.7 below) as explored later on in this thesis (see sections 3.4 & 7.7).

### **1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The study sets out to examine and explore two broad research questions, which comprise some further contextual questions.

## **1. What is the course of and the access to In-service training (INSET) for secondary teachers in the UK?**

### **Subsidiary questions**

- What is INSET and what are its aims and purposes?
- What are the policies underpinning INSET in the UK?
- What is the focus of INSET?
- Who plans, organises and delivers INSET in the UK?
- Is there any partnership between schools and other providers concerning INSET?
- Is there any evaluation and follow-up schemes for INSET courses in the UK? If so, what is the mechanism behind them?
- What would be an ideal form of INSET?
- What are the theories underpinning INSET?

## **2. What lessons can be learnt from the UK INSET System of possible applicability in other educational contexts (e.g., in Colombia)?**

### **Subsidiary questions**

- Are INSET courses providing teachers with significant and productive educational experience in both countries?
- What are the implications of the UK INSET courses in other context?
- Do planners of INSET take into account particular and /or regional needs? If not, how does it work?

## **CONTEXTUAL QUESTIONS**

### **1) What motivation do teachers have when attending INSET courses?**

- Are teachers personally motivated to attend INSET?



- What do INSET courses represent to the professional development of teachers, in financial, promotion and academic terms?
- Are there any limitations for attendance at INSET?
- Are the INSET courses supplied by the governments in the two countries ? If they are, how does the system operate? If not, how do teachers manage to have access to CPD?
- What is the regularity of INSET?
- Have the courses really served the purpose of gathering and sharing professional and pedagogical areas of knowledge and experience?
- Do teacher training courses serve to challenge and up date obsolete teaching methods or do they solely reaffirm the already existing ones?

## **2) Do training courses succeed in recruiting and reaching teachers in non-urban areas, or do they just serve urban areas?**

- Do teachers working in non-urban areas have enough access and sufficient opportunities to go on training as to further their careers?
- Are they provided with sufficient support (e.g., sponsorship and/or secondment) to follow award bearing courses while in service? If not, Who pays for the teachers' INSET courses at Higher Education Institutions?

## **1.3 METHODS OF APPROACH**

The thesis itself comprises both a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the In-service education of teachers (INSET) in the UK, and a qualitative one in Colombia.

A multi-method approach (see Ch.3) is used so as to permit triangulation through the use of multiple data. The intention has been to draw on a variety of sources, ranging from policy documents to interviews and questionnaires with individuals in universities, LEAs, and schools in the UK, along with Ministry of Education Officers, Secretary of Education Officers, Teacher Trainers and teachers in Colombia. The method also includes a minor amount of observation of School-based INSET (SBI) practice in the UK. Comparison and contrast are basically the principles used throughout the analysis of data for eventual connection, back-wards to the Review of Literature, and forwards to the possible implications for Colombia. A guiding

theoretical model for this work is derived from literature reviewed formed by top-down (T); bottom-up (B) and interactional modes of INSET is to be found in section 3.4.

All participants involved in INSET as providers or consumers/clients informed the basis for opinion sampling by responding to the research questions included in section 1.2 above. It was assumed that they were all aware of what was going on with INSET/CPD; and that they understood the process, policies, access (limitations), as well as their personal roles and positions within the institutions they worked in.

Several cases represented by universities, Secretary of Education Offices (SOEs), Local Education Authorities (LEAs), schools, and subject associations were targeted in different regions of the countries in question. These scenarios served the purpose of exploring relevant elements within the context of policy and practice. Bearing in mind this dimension, Chapter 2 (about the Review of Literature), together with chapters four, five, and six (for the UK), and seven (about Colombia) deal with these issues (see 1.4 for more detail).

## **1.4 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS AND THE STUDY**

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Chapter One, sets out the aim and importance of the research topic, research questions, methods of approach and major concerns, plus an overall view of the situation of INSET/CPD in Colombia. The latter provides the study with a particular justification for this research.

Chapter Two, in its *first part*, considers the available literature to chart the historical background of INSET. Then it deals with the theoretical development of teacher-centred professional development from the origins of INSET itself through to the most recent move towards school-based INSET. Funding and school-based INSET shifts are also explored, together with the political influences, which to a great extent have influenced these changes in the UK. The chapter additionally deals with schools' partnership in the delivery of INSET and the implications this brings for its quality. It finally arrives at the crucial subject of Action Research and reflective practice, considered as good foci for INSET, and especially for SBI. Anticipating the continuous changes and new policies in relation to INSET during the time of this research, Chapter 2 is organised in such a way that these may be inserted without affecting its structure. This is also due to the constant shifting of the roles in the organisations in charge of the organisation, provision and management of INSET in the UK (e.g., LEAs, Teacher Training Agency (TTA)).

Chapter 3, on the other hand, reviews a range of relevant methods used in this study for data gathering along with their advantages and disadvantages. It also explains the choice of methods



used, it gives a rationale for such choices and for the Modes Underpinning INSET/CPD in this study.

Chapters 4 and 5 analyse the data collected (1995-1999) from the multi-method technique used (see 1.3). This approach provides for the examination and discussion of the results arrived at in five different settings in the UK, that is, the Northeast, London, the Northwest (Manchester, Liverpool), the Midlands (e.g. Birmingham) in England, as well as Cardiff and Swansea in Wales. This also paves the way for discussion of the diverse INSET typologies and their value considering the criteria for their potential success.

Chapter 6 summarises and draws together some remarks from the findings, including an ideal 6-step-model for INSET/CPD (see 6.1.2 & Fig.15), which emerged from the study in the UK. It suggests issues for further research, and concludes by examining the latest developments in the field of INSET/CPD in the UK.

Finally, Chapter 7 gives an insight into the educational system in Colombia. It deals with the current situation of education and teachers, especially in respect of their In-service training. The chapter finally draws some implications from the UK study emphasising two modes of CPD of potential use for policy-formation in the Colombian context: 1) a theorising mode of INSET/CPD, and its implementation at different levels (see 3.4); and 2) an ideal model for the training of teachers (see 6.1.2) on a continuing basis.

## 1.5 ORIGINS AND RATIONALE FOR THIS STUDY

This thesis principally offers an in-depth analysis of teachers' professional development and of the various ways in which this development is supported in the UK. However, as a starting point, the author's motivation for the study lies in the view that the INSET/CPD system for Secondary School Teachers is largely defective in Colombia. The Ministry of Education and Secretary of Education Offices in Colombia have failed, among other things, in providing teachers with sufficient opportunities and support, regular INSET provision and enough coverage of CPD, due, apparently, to *economic restrictions*.

The suggestion has been made that the Colombian educational system has been plagued with deficiencies since its very origins (see 7.2). Especially after 1989, significant changes in its structure, institutions and administration (Ministry of Education, 1994) have occurred. Main concerns have been the introduction of modifications in policy, planning, and changes with limited resources/funding. Great efforts seem to have been made during the last 40 years by the

National Ministry of Education along with educational organisms involved in education to improve the conditions of the service and overcome the problems. But efforts never seem to be enough.

While training is compulsory for teachers from the very moment they enrol in the profession, teachers are entitled to professionalisation, up grading, promotion, as well as a 'Continuing Professional Development'. Their CPD is monitored and up-dated by the Office for Enrolment and Promotion (OFEREP), similar to the General Teaching Council in Scotland (see Ch. 6), which is a government entity. Participation in the courses influences teachers' career development as well as their income. The latter totally depends upon the level of professional education they have attained at the beginning of their career, plus CPD. Credits awarded for attendance upgrade teachers professionally and increase the mandatory salaries every 2, 3 or 4 years, according to the level they pursue (see Fig.19, Ch. 7).

Most rural teachers, however, are inhibited from attending the few INSET courses organised by the government by consideration of difficulties such as, costs, replacement, domestic responsibilities, lack of planning by areas, little quality of the training, and long distances given the centralised system of the training. Neither have teachers been properly motivated towards a typology and focus of training appropriate to their initial training and ulterior assessed needs.

As well as being hampered by budget shortages, the development of teachers while in-service has been affected by: 1) the lack of an *effective* research infra-structure able to collect statistical and other data; 2) inefficient means of communication between the diverse agents in charge of educational developments and changes; 3) a lack of dissemination of research findings. 4) Above all, there is a lack of coherent vision for ways in which INSET may be developed and achieved in practice.

This thesis will demonstrate that there are potentially successful ways of correcting deficiencies and gaps in the field of INSET/CPD in Colombia. Theoretical and empirical experiences from the UK context may serve this purpose, provided necessary interpretations and adaptations are made (see 3.4, 6.1.2 & 7.7 below). These considerations underlie the rationale in the selection of areas of focus of this study.

Literature relating to the historical and theoretical background of INSET and the professional development of teachers in the UK is reviewed next in Chapter 2.



# CHAPTER TWO

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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### 2.0 Preamble

This chapter deals initially with the general definitions of Teacher Training along with its main components namely: Initial teacher training (ITT) and In-service training (INSET). Principally the chapter concentrates on the historical and theoretical backgrounds of INSET/CPD. It deals with aims and purposes, policies, planning and organisation as well as the assessment and follow-up of INSET. It arrives finally to the crucial point of action research and reflective teaching.

### 2.1 DEFINITIONS

Definitions naturally vary across countries and cultures. In this study it will be helpful to consider definitions which apply to the UK.

#### 2.1.1 TEACHER TRAINING

There are many opinions about what is understood by teacher training in the UK. For the James Report (1972) for example, the education and training of teachers fell into three consecutive cycles, namely: personal education; pre-service training (initial service) and induction; and in-service education and training (DES, 1972, 1.9, 6.5). The term continuity/continuum was eventually introduced in defining teacher training, when the Local Education Authorities (LEAs), and the Departments of Education and Science (DES) expressed the then Secretary of State's wishes to reinforce the 'continuity' between initial training, induction and career-long professional development (DES, 1991f). Shaw (1992) labels teacher training 'the training continuum' and adds the experience of the pupil as forming part of the process. Teacher training is in her view a

*'Continuum: Personal experience as a school pupil...initial training...probationary or induction period...staff development...appraisal...and further staff development'*

(Shaw, 1992:16).

For the majority, however, teacher training refers only to two main stages: initial teacher training (ITT) and in-service training (continuous teacher training). This division of teacher training is considered as 'strange and undesirable' since commonly the two steps seen separately can prevent teacher training from being coherent and effective (Shaw, *ibid.*).

### 2.1.2 INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING (ITT)

Initial Teacher Training (ITT) is considered as consisting of the traditional routes through the concurrent Bachelor of Education (B Ed) qualification for primary, the consecutive one year Post Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) for primary and secondary destinations, or more recent school-based training: e.g. the School-Centred Initial Training (SCIT) schemes. Other modalities of ITT include the Licensed Teacher scheme or the 'fast track' route for teachers trained overseas (Shaw, 1992:16).

### 2.1.3 IN-SERVICE TRAINING (INSET) FOR TEACHERS

In-service Teacher Training (INSET) is variously known as 'continuing professional development' 'CPD', 'staff development' (SD) and 'teacher development' (TD) (Glover & Law, 1996:2). A lot of debate has been held over specific definitions of these various terms (e.g., by Dean (1993), O'Sullivan, et al., 1988, etc) and no single and agreed definition seems to exist.

**INSET** has been tentatively defined as 'including all those courses and activities in which serving teachers may participate for the purpose of extending their professional knowledge, interest or skills. It also involves the preparation for a degree, diploma or other qualification subsequent to initial training (Surrey Educational Research Association, 1967, in Cane, 1969: x).

A similar and useful working definition of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) embraces '*concepts of education, training and support*' within a set of activities engaged in by the teachers and education managers following from initial teacher certification (Bolam (1982a; 1993). It is therefore a *portfolio of activities* the teacher is engaged in after initial training. In essence, it embodies 3 components: 1) *professional training*: short courses, conferences and workshops, largely focused on practice and skills. 2) *professional education*: longer courses and/or secondments, focused on theory and research-based knowledge; and 3) *professional support*: job-embedded arrangements/procedures (Bolam, 1982 a; 1993 in Glover & Law, 1996:3). CPD can also include teaching as a research movement and teachers as researchers in the view that such activity is 'professionally developmental'. For such reasons, agencies such as Departments of Education in the HE Institutions that provide INSET more customarily entitle it 'Continuing Professional Development support'.



The activities falling into the category of INSET/CPD may well be: 1) award bearing courses; 2) short courses; 3) conferences; 4) lectures/workshops; 5) task secondment; 6) visits; 7) meetings; 8) tasks group; 9) discussion group; 10) induction training; 11) action research; 12) classroom observation; 14) consultancy; 15) appraisal; 16) retraining; 17) skills training, and 18) distance learning.

**Staff Development (SD)**, on the other hand, is a broader label for training. SD is 'the process by which individuals, groups and organisations learn to be more effective and efficient' (Williams, G, 1982). It comprehends training for students, ancillary staff, managers, as well as teaching staff within an institutional perspective. It can happen unsystematically and haphazardly or a policy for SD and procedures can be used by institutions to ensure that staff are helped to develop in the best way (Williams, *ibid.*). SD might thus be said to start on the first day as a teacher and continue to the last day, encompassing: 1) the first-hand experience learned at the 'chalk face', 2) courses and in-service training attended by the teacher, plus 3) professional reading and reflection. 4) It involves good practice in teaching and management learned from colleagues both consciously and unconsciously (Shaw, 1992). 5) All individual and team staff development teachers gain in the school such as meetings are also considered forming part of SD (INSET), since they contribute to their expertise (Shaw, 1992:17).

Since INSET/CPD/SD are overlapping concepts and activities, this study will adopt the convention of In-service training, usually abbreviated INSET, interchangeable with Continuing Professional Development (CPD), term taken in after ERA 1988. This decision intends to illustrate the concept that the in-service support for teachers has changed over the years from being initially something done to teachers (behaviourist), to being a process in which teachers take a more active role and responsibility themselves for their own professional development (developmental). This is done usually in partnership with those who provide/promote the service.

Full account of the theoretical underpinnings of these developments will be given later in section 2.3. The historical background of INSET is explored next.

## 2.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF INSET

Politicians, academic educationists, researchers, inspectors, assessors and students of education in particular have traced the origins of teacher training in the UK back to the closing days of the

18<sup>th</sup> century (Henderson, 1978:22). The following is an intended chronological synopsis of the available versions in the literature.

## 2.2.1 BEFORE THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

### The pupil-teacher system

In 1808 the training of teachers began in colleges as specialist institutions designated for that purpose (e.g. Borough Road). College training however appeared to have a rudimentary nature (Thomas, 1990). A training 'system' became necessary in the closing days of the 18<sup>th</sup> (Henderson, 1978:22) and beginnings of the 19<sup>th</sup> century when the so called monitorial system began to spread widely in the elementary school. Hence, the boy monitors, pupil-teacher or monitorial system was the first movement ever towards formal teacher training in the UK, and prospered for almost 50 years (Henderson, 1978:22). The pupil-teacher system, considered initial training, was born as a result of the growing need in the provision of elementary schools to educate children to meet the labour needs of a newly industrialised society (Thomas, J 1990:1). Though In-service training of teachers appears to be historically older than initial training, during the first half of the 19th Century the line of demarcation between one and the other became unclear. They were frequently identical. Dent states in this respect that,

*'The training of monitors and pupil-teachers-or at any rate of first year pupil-teachers- was both initial and in-service'.*

(Dent, 1977: 44).

Organising Masters were employed from an early date by the British and National Societies to travel nation-wide advising teachers on the way to form and conduct monitorial-schools (e.g. the Monitorial School of Lancaster and Bell) while/where the best pupil taught the remaining. Eventually, the Glasgow Normal Seminary opened by David Stow in 1837 eclipsed the monitorial system. Thus 'the best of the Glasgow trainees were sought all over the world in preference to the Bell and Lancaster robots' (Wragg, 1974). This system improved the morale of the elementary school at the time. Abel Jones one successful recruit recorded in his auto-biography that he (the pupil teacher) learned young how to control a class, how to interest children, and how to achieve the maximum good results for his own as well as his children's efforts.

During the 1830s and 1840s, the idea of reviving the 'mutual improvement societies' among elementary school teachers arose. However, this idea was as old as from the 18th century. This would more closely link societies and associations with In-service training. Professor Tropp mentions how, at the time, teachers in British schools started asking their societies for funding



*‘To form an association, with the object of going through regular courses of study, passing examinations, holding meetings, lectures and essays and discussion groups on the government and discipline of schools and the best methods of teaching’*

(Tropp, A, 1957).

The first teachers' association was called the British Teacher's Quarterly Association. It was born in 1836 but not without misgiving of society. Its members began to meet at Borough Road in London. Eventually, The National Society of teachers banded together in 1838. Along with this, from 1840 or shortly before, INSET took the form of evening lessons and lectures, which were organised along with summer schools and harvest holiday camps for teachers. Some of the summer sessions took as long as six weeks with consequent teachers' drop outs because of the length. Whether these courses were consistent, and rigorous enough to be called training might be an open question. The Singing School for Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses in operation by 1841 appeared to be one of the serious enterprises of INSET at that time. Open to all kinds of teachers, the training on the teaching of singing was a thorough one and was at the same time the launcher to establish singing as a subject in the Public Elementary Schools.

According to Thomas (1990), the 'formal involvement of British Universities in the training of teachers is barely a century old'. In the middle of the 19th century different views were held by providers of the elementary as well as the English public and grammar schools about their staffs' training. While the former thought that it was necessary to educate and train candidates for the teaching profession, the latter relied in the main on universities for this. They did not concern themselves with the need for teachers to have specific professional training and/or further qualifications (Willey, et al., 1971). Thereafter, it became a challenge for all to educate students 'while on training', especially to the by then emerging training colleges and universities that were in charge of the initial training of future teachers. Supplementary courses were planned for students who had just completed a certificate course, training being made available to serving teachers as well. There were, however, very small grants and hence, very few teachers could afford to attend them. This philosophy originated from the practical necessity and also the financial stringency that to this day remain in educational institutions (Willey, 1971).

Also, by 1850 the number of evening classes and summer schools suffered a decrease, due possibly to the growth of pupil teaching and of certificated-teachers in grant-aided elementary schools. Despite this, that decade seemed to have been the pioneer of the largest part-time enterprises during the 19th century. Its mission consisted in preparing teachers for the examinations leading to certificates by the Department of Science and Art. This department issued an exam for teachers (in science), which was highly popular due to the financial incentives

it had. The advantage was that teachers holding that certificate were entitled to teach both in evening and in day lessons.

In 1858 the Newcastle Commission was established 'to enquire into the Present State of Popular Education in England and to consider and report what measures if any were enquired for the extension of the sound and cheap Elementary Instruction to all classes of the People. Recommendations were made that grants to schools should be paid for only when pupils fulfilled certain attendance, subject to their attaining a certain degree of knowledge (Education Commission, 1861). The Revised Code of 1862 included the notorious provision of payment by results, which lasted until the end of the century (1897) (Henderson, E, 1978: 23). Positively, the Revised Code served an in-service training function and consolidated the isolated examples of teachers meeting together to discuss problems that had originated since the beginning of the century, and even earlier (Edmonds, 1967 in Henderson, E, 1978:23)

After the Education Act of 1870, Science was at the forefront of the training agenda. The Department of Art and Science organised a limited scale of summer demonstrations that made provision for 'universal' elementary education (Henderson, E, 1978:24). In 1871 Thomas Henry Huxley, a young teacher at the Government school of Mines obtained recognition for Science training school and colleges by using the summer schools for teachers. Unfortunately, when he retired in 1885, the title obtained by the schools was dropped, and the training of teachers came to an end. In 1890, the Department of Education initiated a new departure when

*'It introduced the one year supplementary course into training colleges, designed to enable teachers to acquire a specialist qualification'*

(Dent, 1977: 46).

This decade was rich in promise of better things to come in British education (Dent, *ibid.*) during the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

**But What was going on with secondary education by then?**

## **Training for secondary teachers**

Universities were not concerned about the primary pupil-teacher's system deficiencies until the last decades of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. They dealt with secondary teachers' education. The focus of the studies in the universities was normally on content in the academic subjects ignoring teaching methods. It was believed that



***‘The provision of a degree –especially if it were reinforced by holy orders-  
was an entirely adequate qualification for teaching in an endowed or public  
school’***

(Barnard, H. C, 1961. in Thomas, J, 1990:2)

The 19<sup>th</sup> century profession of public School Masters of Victorian Britain operated in an elite world of schools which were an extension of Oxford and Cambridge if not superior to the Oxford colleges (Bamford, 1973). Secondary school Masters remained uninterested in the matter of training for the profession, as it was associated with (low class) pupil-teachers' residential colleges. This attitude from the middle class secondary teachers could be interpreted as hostile to the certificated-elementary ones. The status of the Certificated-Masters was considered far beneath that of the independent middle class educators (Thomas, J, 1990:2). Forty years later this division was still obvious, the implication being that elementary teachers would not be received into the cultured middle class world of secondary schools, while educated teachers did not 'need the training' of the others. Training meant reducing their status by association with other (low) class. University had favoured only teachers of the better secondary schools delivering training on content of curriculum studies. Thus many private Victorian secondary schools recruited teachers with (possible) professional and academic deficiencies for the work they were to undertake. Women, meanwhile, were not accepted in Universities until the last quarter of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. It is therefore not strange that Victorian women started seeing secondary teaching as a goal, turning to the Universities for training. This gave origin to the Day Training Colleges (1890), and the second phase of the public provision of institutions for the training of elementary teachers (Tuck, 1973).

The training of secondary teachers then began with the private and women teachers in the College of Preceptors in 1846. This was considered only 'a kind of teachers university', as described by Rich, R W (1972), because of the defective quality of training derived from the short funding. Nonetheless, it attracted able teachers for the occasional lectures (e.g. Payne Joseph). In the 1870s, the Colleges of Preceptors were the trainers for secondary teachers awarding them with diplomas, courses particularly useful for private secondary teachers. Equally valuable were the diplomas awarded by the Universities of Cambridge after it established a Teacher training syndicate in 1875. In 1886, Cambridge, Oxford, London & Durham Universities awarded teachers with certificates though exams on theory, history, and practice of education, which could be prepared in or outside the university. The Oxford Diploma in theory, history and practice dates from 1896. Secondary training departments were opened in other universities and by 1900 there were 21 in operation (Rich, 1972, *ibid.*). Women's schemes were born also, e.g., The Cambridge

Day Training College for Women, the Syndicate of Hughes Hall to train catholic men and women (McClelland, V. A, 1975), though the latter collapsed soon after.

The anti-intellectual nature of teacher training prompted pleas for elementary teachers to be exposed to education and wider culture in universities. The strongest view of the liberalisation of training seemed to come from Scotland as links between universities and schools had already been forged. The argument was that a specialist training college did not answer the same purposes of the universities (Professor Laurie). This view was attractive for the new civic universities of England and Wales to increase the provision of Oxford, Cambridge, London, and Durham. Teacher training was taken as a resource to increase student numbers and academic prestige. Residence and study at universities was possible for women and by 1880, 56% of the teaching force were women. In 1885, Newcastle upon Tyne, the Local School Board of Newcastle and Gateshead assured that they would support the establishment of a department for the training of teachers 'under suitable conditions and proper supervision for ...practising students (Thomas, 1990:11). Day training colleges were then the ancestors of the current modern departments and schools of education. Some individual foundation dates tentatively are:

- 1) 1890: Manchester, Newcastle, Cardiff, London (Kings), \* Birmingham, Nottingham
- 2) 1891: Sheffield, Cambridge, Liverpool, Leeds
- 3) 1892: \*Bristol, Aberystwyth, Oxford, London (University College)
- 4) 1884: Bangor
- 5) 1899: Reading, Southampton
- 6) 1901: Exeter
- 7) 1902: London Day Training College (now the University of London Institute of Education)

\* (Birmingham and Bristol were universities only for women)

(Tuck, J.P, 1973)

There were obvious mixed-feelings and rivalry among training colleges and universities concerning the training of teachers due to the quality of instruction in the former; the 'somewhat miscellaneous description'... (Fiddes, 1937:170) of students, the inclusion of women in teaching. The latter was a source of bias from within the universities. There were many in universities who believed that elementary teachers did not need university education (Hyams, 1979) as they were over-ambitious because they had sufficient training...'the more you educate teachers, the more they want to be paid'(Patrick, 1986). Middle class uneducated people wanted cheap labour especially in rural England. Nor did high quality colleges (e.g. Bangor Normal College) want to mix with the universities. Battersea Training College Principal would say 'I do not like to say anything offensive about university professors but I have not a very high opinion of them, I am



bound to say, as teachers...I can conceive scarcely that they could teach more efficiently than we do'.

In sum, it appears that until the last decade of the 19<sup>th</sup> century *most* in-service training of teachers aimed at improving teachers' examination results and by effect salaries. INSET consisted simply of lectures, or summer short series of lectures, except, those lessons given at the College of Preceptors by Professor Joseph Payne in 1873 and 1874 that were followed by group discussion. For most teachers 'this was the only significant means of improving their professional and personal education before 1900' (Henderson, E, 1978:24). Since then, employers and employees had a cash-nexus that only would disappear in 1925 with the introduction of the national salary scale (Henderson, E, *ibid.*). Universities, on the other hand, got involved in the education of secondary teachers but not very much in their training. Jealousy and suspicion would arise between elementary and secondary teachers for the type of training they received, but above all for status reasons. During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, things seemed to have changed for the better.

## **2.2.2 IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY**

The first decades of the 20th century did much to fulfil the promise of new developments in the education of teachers.

The most significant changes/reforms that took place during the century in the field of education and training include : 1) the Morant's Reforms; 2) the 1944 McNair Reform; 3) the James Report; and 4) The Educational Reform Act (ERA) 1988. These developments are used as sub-headings next, so as to make the section a more readable one. Alongside these developments, other changes are alluded to as well.

### **2.2.2.i THE MORANT'S REFORMS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS**

Training received its first major stimulus with the establishment by the Board of Education of the one-year supplementary course to provide prospective elementary school teachers with two years of initial training and thus the opportunity of a third year. Up to the outbreak of the Second World War there was a slow but steady increase in the provision of this type of in-service training (Thomas, J, 1990) in the day training colleges.

The first and absolutely necessary prerequisite for securing better teachers at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century was an improvement in general education. For that implementation to materialise, it was necessary in 1900 to improve the general education of pupil-teachers for



several reasons. One, they constituted almost a one-quarter of the teaching force (30,783 out of 139,818) in the schools. Two, they made up virtually the sole resource of recruitment to elementary school teaching. The system was too firmly embedded into the national economy of education, that abolishing, or altering it would look just impossible. A third reason was the lack of certificated-teachers. As the literature mentions, by 1900 there was only one certificated-teacher to 75 pupils, and only one trained teacher to 128 elementary school pupils.

A high elementary or a suitable secondary school was the desirable place for the instruction of boys and girls who would eventually become pupil-teachers. Instead, the regulations provided for the establishment of 'full time preparatory classes' at pupil-teacher centres for pupils under 16. The idea of 'early practice' was implemented although with fears of missing pupils and having to close elementary schools. Robert Laurie Morant, Permanent Secretary to the Board of Education from 1903 to 1911 was one of the prominent figures in reforms. According to Bernard Allen, his biographer,

*'One of the objects on which he had throughout set his heart was the improvement of the quality of the teachers in elementary schools'*

(Allen, B,1934. In Dent, 1977:47).

Other of Morant's greatest reforms/achievements that will always be acknowledged were:

- 1) a swift build-up of a statutory system of secondary education, and
- 2) the changes made to the education and training of teachers.

There existed a close relation between the two reforms. One of Morant's main reasons for developing secondary education was his intention to secure better teachers for Public elementary schools. However, his initial intentions of establishing the prospective teachers with three or four years in secondary school were dropped because there were not enough schools, and those in existence were unevenly distributed. So, while building up a national network of Secondary schools, he wished to expand and improve the Pupil-teacher Centres as well. The changes of training were of fundamental importance for the future of teachers, and the prelude of subsequent ones.

In 1907, Morant issued regulations for the 'preliminary education of elementary school teachers'. Morant intended deliberately to introduce an alternative to the traditional method of pupil-teachership for entry into college. Selected pupils would bear awards or grants to enable them to stay an additional year at school between 16 and 18. In finishing this year they ought to enter

training college straight away, or could also serve in schools as 'Student-Teachers' for up to one year and then enter college. Morant was discouraged from this idea, on the one hand, by the HMIs' report that wondered whether this system (the pupil-teacher) was worth keeping in existence at all. On the other hand, hesitation was rised as whether it was was worth struggling for the system at the cost of the disorganisation of the secondary schools and the overwork, dissipation of energies, and in many cases (pupils') neglect. These were too often the result of the half-time system to the pupil-teachers themselves. Moreover, many LEAs and schools liked the bursary scheme but many (head) teachers did not. The storm caused by this scheme lasted long afterwards. It gave rise to reactions such as that by the Schoolmaster, or the official journal of NUT, that published a summary of the regulations under the title 'Exit the Pupil-teacher'. This asserted that the system would very soon be as extinct as the dodo. Similarly, the president of the National Federation of Class Teachers said succinctly: 'The new type of training may foster students, but it cannot create teachers'. The system was considered as being unfair to working class parents due to the obvious postponement of their children's earnings. At that stage, neither National Health nor Unemployment Insurance existed, so life was hard enough for those people with low wages. Unfairly, perhaps, the scheme was considered by some people as discriminatory. In their view, it was

*'(A) a case of the upper classes trying to down the working man...under the bursary system the working man could not possibly put any of his children into the teaching profession'*

(Dent, 1977:55).

It was believed also that the bursary scheme would halt the decline in the number of young recruits to the teaching profession. Research showed that by 1906-1907 there were 11,018 students and that the number had decreased by 1,619 in 1913. This number was augmented just by 3,012 new bursars, which meant that the pupil-teacher system was dying out all over the country.

Mr Walter Runciman (President of the Board of Education) seemed to believe so, when he declared,

*'The recruitment of pupil-teachers lingered on here and there up to the outbreak of the Second World War... It was pretty well extinct by the outbreak of the First...'*

(Runcinam, W. in Dent, 1977).



Parallel to this, in 1905 all King's Scholars (previously Queens' until Queen Victoria's death) were admitted for a three-year course to become elementary school teachers, the university accepting matriculation in place of the King's Scholarship examination. In 1906 education would be recognised as an ordinary degree, the honours being instituted 6 years later. The Board of Education recognised a Secondary training department in 1907 with an increase in the day training colleges, while in 1911 the degree changed to a three year course plus one of professional training to get a diploma in education (the ancestor of the PGCE modern course).

The significance of the day training courses was: 1) in promoting the development of the study of education as an academic subject and encouraging the growth of research and scholarship (Rich, 1933); 2) their contribution in stimulating increased numbers of students into arts faculties (Armytage, 1955). 3) Without them there would have been very scarce students of arts and literature. 4) The day training colleges also encouraged a flow of science students. The colleges had criticism from a number of detractors, of course. One of the former students of the system would say 'Each of us had to do 3 weeks practice each year and only one school was used...So all through two terms we were drafted by batches into school. I fear we were blind to suffering of that tortured school with its generations of youngsters butchered to make a training department – the criticism lesson was pretty generally disliked. I would gladly have taken the place of anyone present, for choice that of a pupil, for these events did not much to brighten young lives...What is the supervisor to do when, knowing that the show must go on, he observes a young teacher put the equator around the earth from north to south...' (Walters, A.W). This quotation gives only a partial idea of the pitfalls of the system.

The day training college system could clearly be extended to include secondary training, and in 1900 there were already 21 courses for secondary teachers in universities in Britain. Nonetheless, 'the early provision which was made was piecemeal, the number of students was small and the secondary trained teachers were either trained in separate departments under only one tutor, or in separate groups in the same departments' (Tuck, 1973).

The universities became involved in training for secondary school because of a growing recognition in the 1890s that teachers for those schools should be trained. The Cambridge Teachers Training Syndicate and secondary training colleges for women teachers were part of the recognition, together with the registration movement (1902-1906), conferences on secondary education held at Oxford and Cambridge. The university was the right body to concern itself with secondary training. The growth of secondary training in the universities was, however, generally slow. The registration of teachers was not compulsory, which made teachers neglect the principle of training, owing perhaps to the lack of grants which were established from public funds



only until 1908. Thus, before the First World War, the university training departments contained two types of students on two different courses: one, the three-year elementary school courses for Board of Education examinations; the other, students on one-year courses of training, usually for elementary teaching. There were more students in the former than in the latter group. In 1911 the Board of Education recognised the four-year course, establishing that 'the first three years were devoted to undergraduate degree study and the fourth year to professional studies.

After the out-break of the First World War, it was possible for elementary students to convert to teaching into secondary schools. The doubling of the population in secondary schools between 1918 and 1939 was another factor to encourage the university departments to concentrate on secondary training. But it was difficult to decide how many students from the university department worked with elementary and/or secondary schools. In the 1930s, when unemployment was at a peak (higher), students might well work first with elementary pupils and move into secondary education thereafter (Tuck, J.P, 1973 in Thomas, J, 1990: 31).

It could be said that during the 1930s, 'teacher training brought in new subjects and new students and gave the universities closer links with the school system; that teachers should have their higher education alongside those students preparing to enter other professions and occupations. In 1939, for example, all universities were involved with the teaching profession as, in the long run, there was value in an association between a seat of learning and the humblest elementary school in the land (Tuck, 1973, *ibid.*:34). In the 1940s, the McNair Report was issued bringing about new changes to education and teacher training.

### **2.2.2.ii THE 1944 McNAIR REPORT AND AFTER**

From the 1940s onwards and following the 1944 Act, colleges faced a complete change in the character of the educational system raising their training from elementary to secondary education. The McNair Committee was appointed by the Board of Education (DoE) to provide more effective teacher training and to give more effectiveness to the practical side of preparation. McNair proposed, among other things, that staff in schools in which students were placed on teaching practice 'should be primarily responsible for directing and supervising them' (para. 261). In order to achieve more effective training, institutions would have to 'relinquish a measure of responsibility in the training of their students' (Para 270). Also, it was proposed that when circumstances made it practicable, every teacher who made suitable proposals for the use of the period, should be allowed a sabbatical term on full pay after five years of continuous teaching, and that where there was warrant, the period should not be limited to one term (Board of Education, 1944).



The McNair Report established also Institutes of Education in 1944 which were 'an organic federation of approved training institutions working in co-operation with their approved educational institutions (Ministry of Education, 1946 in Henderson, E, 1978:25). Ever since, the universities have thus also been to a great extent the most important providers of in-service teacher training. Changes proposed by then seem to be contemporary (Clarke, 1992) and not (yet) completed almost 60 years after.

Since the institutes of education were created after the McNair Report, many universities set up local committees to co-ordinate regional INSET activities, particularly from 1947-1967. Universities provided -still do- 2 different kind of courses, that is, long courses leading to 'name award' degrees and shorter non-award bearing ones, on a full-time/part-time bases or both (Mattock, G (1972) In Watkins, R., 1973:60). The university courses at that time were focused mostly on enrichment, education theory, and curriculum. There also existed one-day stand courses, of which universities were involved just as organisers, due to the large amount of attendants (Mattock, *ibid.*).

## **The Area Training Organisations (ATOs)**

Immediately after the 1939-45 war, the Area training Organisations (ATOs) were created with the purpose of improving the quality of teacher education and planning the provision of such education in the different regions. They would be legally abolished in 1975 for political reasons (see 2.2.2.iii below), but 'de facto' sometime after (Turner, J (1990) In Thomas, J, 1990:39). In 1942 with the reorganisation of the system after the war, a committee was appointed by the President of the Board of Education to investigate into the sources of supply, methods of recruitment and training of teachers and youth leaders. They were appointed in the darkest days of the war and would have to report and formulate principles as to guide the Board in these matters in future. Among other things, they reported in 1944 a hundred teacher training institutions including university training departments.

According to the Daily Telegraph on May 4<sup>th</sup>, 1944, the Committee suggested: 1) substantial increases in teachers' salaries; 2) new methods of recruiting and training teachers; 3) abolition into teaching of people who have already proved their quality in commerce and the professions. 4) Also they recommended that no LEA should oblige women to resign their posts on marriage. The recommendations seemed to have a 'peculiarly modern ring' (Turner, *ibid.*p.40). 5) The Report recommended recruitment to teaching of mature adults from industry, commerce and the professions, and that they ought to have a shorter course, in point of length and character tolerable to them having regard of their maturity and experience. As a result, a large number of



mature men and women coming back from the war service were admitted to in the teaching profession. 6) Importantly, the Committee suggested the recognition of only one grade of teacher, namely the Qualified Teacher who had satisfactorily completed an approved course of education and training. But this led to the Board accepting into the profession non-trained persons of any graduate study, a practice that did not cease for many years after. Seventeen Area Teaching Organisations were created by then (23 eventually), 13 of them were integral parts of universities or university colleges, while 4 of them were financed by the Ministry of Education. Each ATO included amongst its members the departments of education in their university and eventually UDE of polytechnics and colleges of art, as well as teacher training colleges.

Despite Reforms and the Report, prior to 1960 the need for INSET was defined in terms of a deficiency model, where the Local Education Authorities (LEAs) usually had little to offer. In some cases their role tended to militate against this function (Osborne, 1984). The emphasis was that all teachers should have a substantial period of in-service training (a minimum of perhaps 60 hours) at least every 5 years and that head teachers and deputies should have special training as well (Henderson, E, 1978:26). The secondary school courses aim was to update or extend teachers' subject knowledge. Thus the academic perspectives of the providers and the consumers' expectations were founded on the *subject-based content* in the classroom. Criticism went to the fact that the delivery was by the transmission method, and the provider was an expert, external to the classroom sometimes with little or no contact with the receivers. Estimations showed that by then only 7% of recorded INSET activity was led by practising teachers (Thornbury, 1973), which was a waste of talent, of course.

The 'policy in the 1960s was expansionist' (DES, 1964). A first move towards *professionalisation of teachers* gradually occurred. The old 2 years certificate (considered as basic initial qualification for teaching) was phased out by the minimum period of 3 years training. In an early effort to involve teachers in INSET, the School Council (SC) promoted a new value system in INSET. Curriculum development was to be based on two main principles: firstly, that the motive power should come primarily from local groups of teachers accessible to one another. Secondly, that there should be effective and close collaboration between teachers and all those who are able to offer co-operation (S.C. Working Paper 10, 1967).

### **2.2.2.iii THE JAMES REPORT (1970): IMPLICATIONS**

Taking into account the constant criticism of the teacher education system, the Secretary of State for Education, Mr Short (from the Labour party) ordered in 1970 new enquiries into the system and particularly into ATOs which should examine structure and involvement of the profession in



teacher education (Thomas, J, 1990:51). But the Labour government was soon replaced by the Conservatives and the plan to use ATOs for review of the education of teachers was frustrated. Mrs Thatcher, the new Secretary of State appointed Lord James of Rusholme and a committee to enquire into the present arrangements for the education, training and probation of teachers in England and Wales.

In January 1972 (DES, 1972), Tory Lord James gave the Select Committee on Education and Science (set up by the Labours in 1968) evidence on the situation of Teacher Education and Training and made interesting recommendations. When it became a Green Paper, it was highly discussed, especially in the Leeds Conference on Teacher Training in July 1973. It took Mrs Thatcher a full year to respond to the recommendations with the White Paper, *Education: A Framework for Expansion* (1972). Mrs Thatcher could hardly do more than sketch the main lines of the policy for teacher education (Lord James, 1972 in Watkins, R., 1973:9).

The James' Report proved to be a watershed document with its 133 recommendations, some of which still deserve study. Some considered it detrimental to the teacher's education given its anti-intellectual approach to teacher education and criticism of educational theory (Thomas, J, 1990:52). The only James recommendation to be fully achieved was to abolish the university-based area training organisations, for which Eric James himself had so little time. The binary policy structure that placed teachers' education in universities and the public sector was achieved in 1975.

The possibility of closure or alternatively amalgamation of colleges with universities or polytechnics, due apparently to low quality and dependence of colleges from universities was envisaged in the report. The following years would see this happening. The elimination of the theoretical component from initial and in-service education and training (though the latter was unintentional) was accelerated after the report as well. The limitation in number of students and places for initial training in colleges declined to almost the half, the effect being dramatic. This ruled out the possibility of developing elaborate new national and regional structures to supervise and give awards to a new system of teacher education.

The radical recommendation was made that ATOs were to be replaced and taken away from universities and that all their functions should be assimilated by new bodies. A White Paper proposed the creation of new regional committees to co-ordinate the education and training of teachers...and ordered ATOs to discharge existing responsibilities of initial and in-service education and training of teachers (Turner, J (1990) In Thomas, J, 1990:54). Meanwhile, universities would continue providing these services to teachers. Proposals to replace the ATOs

became intermingled with the regional co-ordination arrangements for public sector higher and further education (Gosden, P (1990) In Thomas, J, 1990:76). In fact, ATOs continued to exercise into the 1980s until Mrs Thatcher, with the tendency of centralising educational policy-making and control, as well as the content and many of the procedures of teacher education created the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) in 1984 (Turner, J, *ibid.* p.55).

Perhaps the most important of all James's recommendations was the advocacy of the necessity of a 'life-long education for the teachers'. This was a reaction against Mr Kenneth Baker's (former Secretary of State) intention to single out the study of theory and history of education (according to him, it was 'a misuse of time'), emphasising practice instead. James recommended to divide the education of teachers into three cycles: 1) the personal higher education of the teacher; leading to the Diploma of Higher Education. 2) teacher's initial professional education, leading to a 'licenced-teacher' title while continuing the second year of studies for a BA. 3) The third cycle would extend from that stage for the rest of the teacher's life (Thomas, J, *ibid.* p.51) and involved short and longer courses leading to part/full-time higher qualifications. Most of this proposal was not accepted (e.g. BA), and the traditional B Ed was preferred instead, despite James' recommendation for it to be abolished. As he put it, 'It has been strongly affirmed that the B Ed in its present form is not well suited to its purposes (DES, 1972, para. 3.36).

According to James, full-time in-service study should become a matter of right rather than a privilege. He recommended that in-service teachers take training 'one term every seven years' (that is one term training every 21 terms) though the word *compulsory* was not used. It was hoped that eventually the entitlement would reach one term for every five years of service (Thomas, J, 1990:52). The inducement was primarily one of 'becoming better at 'one's job, leaving more materialistic considerations to be dealt with by the ordinary mechanism of promotion of more highly qualified people' (Lord James in 'The James Report's third cycle' in Watkins, Roger, 1973:13). James defended this proposal arguing that in-service training was vital for teachers because knowledge and techniques of teaching change. Equally important, that since society changes, so schools and teachers do (Lord James, *ibid.* 14); that with experience teachers develop new interests in special fields and all these new demands for special skills are provided merely by in-service training. In James' view, new methods, new curricula and new attitudes would evolve by the research and development sponsored by the SC, Nuffield and other such agencies.

But as Lord R would say 'it is only through the growth of in-service training that the gulf between advancing knowledge and practice can be bridged' (James, Lord R, 1972 in Watkins, 1973:15).



As a consequence of the Report, secondments for the training were highly regarded by teachers during the 1970s, since James had declared that everybody was entitled to them. The proposed secondment was considered as idealistic alluding that the LEAs did not have enough funding. In addition, the DES regulations were so prescriptive in terms of types of activities that would be eligible for this support. Financial problems, staffing, access and time created a far from fertile climate for INSET (Britton, E (1972) In Watkins, R (1973:22)). Britton, more realistically calculated that out of 350, 000 teachers who were working in England at that time, there would be 17, 500 teachers out of school 'at any one time' undertaking full time courses of one month or possibly longer'. He appeared to mean that the James' project was over ambitious, as the LEAs had deliberately to plan replacement of their teachers during the periods they were released for INSET, and supply staff ought to be planned in relation to the subject specialisation required. For Britton (ibid) INSET had to be a highly planned operation and the staff releasing planned in advance. There would be a need for an 'overall national planning of courses'. Britton finally pointed out that the classroom practitioner was not involved at all in the delivery of INSET, and as he would reckon in the Leeds Conference on In-service Training (1973) which analysed changes after the Jame's Report,

***'I must regretfully admit that teachers themselves are prominent among those who fail to look to their own professional colleagues for advances in approaches and teaching techniques***

(Britton, E, (1972) 'Teachers and In-service Training'. A paper presented in the Leeds Conference in 1972. In Watkins, R., 1973:29).

Looking retrospectively, it could be said that in the 1970s, teachers' education became more serious. The profession observed a higher standing; training programmes were more extended and teachers were exposed to a university culture. An even greater move towards the professionalisation was attempted when a 4<sup>th</sup> year was added for the best students to convert into B Ed degree. Then the certificate for primary teachers was phased out and the 3+1 structure became 4 concurrent years for both primary and secondary teachers. However, the 'actual professionalisation' of education seems to have started when the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) became compulsory for graduate teachers and Masters and Doctorate degrees were in demand. In the late 1970s and early 1980s the former colleges gradually disappeared merging into university or polytechnic departments of education. It was then decided that teachers who had been in schools for some years needed to have a chance to familiarise themselves with new advances, educational techniques, immigrant children education, etc. The courses, however, did not include time for reflection, working groups, classroom-



research, working alongside colleagues, development of classroom materials or any other teachers' demands. They were limited to keeping up-to-date with new developments; subject content; methodology, and/or social change.

Radical changes in Education such as the introduction of Comprehensive Education, the setting up of Middle Schools, and the raising of the school leaving age, among other factors, increased the need for in-service training courses at local and national levels. To meet these needs, many sponsors developed INSET courses. UDEs, DES, colleges of education and LEAs also planned courses on a large scale. Planning prior courses proved to be cheaper than creating courses later to solve already existing difficulties. For these ideas to materialise, the SC conceived the Teachers Centres (TC).

The Teacher Centre's aim was primarily to enable teachers to take responsibility for their professional development and own operation. The stage was set by the James' Report (1972) and purported that no teacher was without an opportunity to use the TCs (Dialogue No 4, 1969). All classroom practitioners would have the opportunity and get involved in curriculum development, hitherto exclusive preserve of higher education. The SC meant the TCs to facilitate local curriculum change and developments initiated by the teachers by means of study groups and working papers coming from themselves. TCs were established, resourced, and funded by LEAs but acting on the ideals of the SC. Ideally they would 'meet the felt needs of teachers and show the futility of attempting educational reform without teachers being directly and importantly involved' (Bailey, 1971:146). Indeed, no teacher need feel isolated from the mainstream of educational advance (Thornbury, 1973). The centres were of, governed by, and for the teachers. Therefore, the content-oriented INSET shifted to the solution-centred problem and school-focused. There were hundreds of TCs throughout the Great Britain. A committee of teachers depicted the colleagues' needs and provided a programme of INSET activity, with some equipment from LEAs, some clerical support, but in the main with their own resources. Eventually professional leaders were appointed and recruited from practising teachers. Thus TCs constituted a move towards a more autonomous profession, setting its own standards and enforcing professionalism, as this was to be required due to greater demands in the career. As it was claimed

***'Teachers involvement in curriculum development and participation in teachers' centres activities has demanded a greater degree of professionalism than has sometimes been required, and thus has been to the good'***

(Redknap, 1977:16).

But the TCs' success had serious opponents who labelled them as the Emperors' clothes, soft-centres in In-service training. The LEAs Inspectorate took over the centres without any warning to teachers. To this, Pollard (1970: 380,1) readily claimed 'the bandwaggon (centres) had been hi-jacked'. The apparent reason behind this hi-jacking was that the LEAs resourced TCs promoting INSET conflicted directly with their (LEAs') policies. To the teachers' relief, HE came into the picture as the redemption from those narrow-minded and prescriptive employers (Pollard, *ibid.*). Consequences of this were, firstly, that, resources became scarce in TCs, and secondly, that '*INSET shifted to the most expensive modes*'. Professional centres were to be located exclusively within HE institutions and partnership of schools with LEAs, HE and serving teachers was reduced. INSET could well be undertaken just as a subordinated part of unassessed, unrecognised and undervalued courses, although bearing awards sometimes. Likewise, teachers' activities in centres were taken, as a personal realisation with no gained recognition. In their view, James' definition of INSET was prescriptive, sectarian and narrow-minded.

On the other hand, the Curriculum Development Board and its operations were boycotted by teachers because of the poor representation they had in its planning committee (of only 4 members). A new committee was born with 27 teachers out of 49 members. One clear conclusion was that when members were elected by their colleagues there were extremely good results (Robinson, E., In Watkins, R., 1973). A fight had to be won in relation to the place of teachers in INSET who fairly alleged ownership along with the petition that

*'A large amount of the instruction, as well as the design and planning of courses, ought to be undertaken by practitioner teachers'.*

(Britton, E (1972), in Watkins, R., 1973:29)

Questions such as 'WHO does WHAT to WHOM in the INSET jungle' were raised. Complaints were also made about LEAs' role in INSET. If LEAs were allowed to control INSET provision, then they would probably just provide courses suiting their particular needs to ease control of the curriculum and methods of teaching, with no account of the real teachers' needs. Regrettably enough, the ownership of INSET by teachers was missed again, and the outcomes would not be expected to be so good when practising teachers carried out research and communicated results to their colleagues.

Further and even more controversial developments in the education of teachers were due to come during the 1980s as reported next



### **2.2.2.iv THE 1980s**

In the decade of the 1980s, as evidenced by the Select Committee, many developments occurred in INSET. In 1985, subsequent to the James Report, central government came into the arena with the introduction of TVEI-Related In-service training (TRIST). The wide expansion and importance of INSET did not appear to ensure quality, however.

There was a lack of planning and co-ordination and also a tendency to rely on ad-hoc arrangements to compensate for the absence of logical development. Dramatic shifts occurred in policy. The DES implemented an INSET funding shift from providing bodies such as universities and polytechnic departments of education and colleges of higher education which used this resource to staff and order INSET awards ranging from short courses, to M A degrees. Funds were transferred to the LEAs, which were the teacher's employers (still are). LEAs became the providers of INSET at regional levels based on their own, national priorities and current needs of their teachers (Tisher, and Wideen, 1990:122). The LEAs made use of the resources for INSET themselves or paid training institutions for courses relating to their immediate needs. That is a prevalent policy to date (2000), although to a less extent due to the Local Management of Schools (LMS). This shift among others has been considered as a possible cause for the large amount of teachers' turn over. It is a fact that teachers mostly left schools which lacked 'a clear system for school-based support'. These were at least the findings of an inspection by her HMI (1989) which, departing from the concept of effective training by schools, found 17 schools with a high turnover precisely due to poor training.

Slowing down the teacher turn-over by improving conditions for experienced staff (Shaw, 1992:19-21) was then the government motto. To augment recruitment methods, new retention schemes were created by LEAs and schools (e.g., recruitment of overseas trained teachers, encouragement to return to teaching profession and the Licensed schemes). Induction and on-going staff development opportunities both inside and outside the school were offered to teachers. Supply teachers should also receive induction and as comprehensive a training as that given to trainees and full-time teachers, for they were seen as the heroes who kept schools open when the turn over(s) occurred.

Since schools were opening doors to teachers with a variety of backgrounds, the assumption was that they should provide staff with a comprehensive and well-organised training. All new teachers' recruiting routes then emphasised school experience, which called for essential high standards of training expertise. Schools were required to have an effective whole school approach to induction and teacher training in all its phases so as to retain staff and face all



legislative changes in teacher training. Importantly, all aspects and phases of training were integrated into staff development and appraisal schemes. Teacher status and job satisfaction were meant to be enhanced and staff development was to be taken forward. Teachers were also more involved in curricular links with HE, LEAs and partners in other schools. Until the mid-1980s teachers still had opportunities to apply for secondment to attend INSET or to pursue further studies in education. They were successful depending on the financial situation and commitments by LEAs to INSET plus a bit of good luck on their part, since there was no equity among the different regions of the country. Authorities might well be generous or not to applicants. In turn, middle managers and subject mentors were helped to cope with staff development and improve their own teaching and managerial abilities.

The LEAs started requiring higher levels of excellence, quality and professionalism from schools. Although these demands were not new at all, schools had to make great efforts to please both the teachers and the authorities. To ensure that professional standards and quality were enhanced for the improvement of schools, demands for teachers *accountability*, and *responsibility* (Tickle, 1987:25) of teachers continued to be discussed (e.g., Alexander, 1984a; Graham, 1985; Elliot et al., 1985; Holt, 1982; Sockett, 1980 in Tickle, 1987:25). Commitment to education and self-determination conducted in mutual trust and partnership between those concerned with education were highly advocated as well. The management of curriculum would be implemented, controlled and safeguarded at the direction of central government; and accountability centred on school-wide self-evaluation and curriculum reviews pointing out in the direction of individual teachers' performance and its assessment.

Assessment and appraisal grounds were given emphasis in schools to achieve excellence. The comment, however, was prompted that teachers' appraisal was born as a consequence of teachers' incompetence. The 'effective management' approach to control teachers through the idea of 'accurate knowledge of teachers' performance...based on assessment was clearly the bureaucratic control message of 'Quality in Schools: Evaluation and Appraisal' (DES, 1985d: 5). *Individual teachers' performance and assessment* would be central since, based on the belief that

***'Knowledge of teacher's performance results in teachers being helped to respond to changing demands and to realise their professional potential***

(DES, 1985d, 'Quality in Schools: Evaluation and Appraisal': 5).

This started with school self-evaluation of curriculum, and LEA systematic teacher appraisal, an idea that was brought about from 1976. HM Inspectors collected evidence of effectiveness in teachers assessment and self-evaluation in schools (DES, 1983) and would be made more



available to public scrutiny in future. The comment was prompted that teacher appraisal models lacked in LEAs (DES, 1985d, p.7). That the gap was tackled soon after when seven LEAs started serious action on that direction. But 'of the criteria to be deployed there is little to be learned from DES publications' (Tickle, 1987).

The mechanisms and procedures for achieving schools improvement, offered generalised prescriptions and conditions (Tickle, 1987:26).

Evaluation and appraisal should be linked to INSET, which obviously would lead teachers to have time, support and goodwill for their professional development; and a healthy perception of status and good morale were critical! (DES, 1985d, p.47). Teachers had to get used to management of evaluation and appraisal. Teachers' classroom-observation coupled with interviews were seen as playing an important role in providing researchers with evidence of teacher's skills (Tickle, 1987:27). Training was then needed for both sides, namely teachers and observers. Since the country seemed to lack the expertise, industry and other countries might provide it (Tickle, 1987:ibid.). The assumption that outsider expertise from industry might produce management training which could be imposed on teachers who were in turn *not prepared* in the skills of classroom observation and other techniques (e.g., interviews and analysis), missed important opportunities for professional development.

The alternative of classroom, and school-based initial and in-service education of teachers, motivating professional self-development through practical issues had not been (broadly) explored in official literature by then, but there was an increasing body of experience and understanding available within the curriculum research and evaluation field (Tickle, 1987:27). The professionalisation approach, a fashionable term, set out to move teachers towards codes of practice to ensure excellence through autonomous, professional accountability (Socket, 1980).

An important question arising was about the *CRITERION AGAINST WHICH* the competent and excellent teaching had to be judged, and also *BY WHOM* and *FOR WHOM* they would be made. Most importantly, *WHAT* is to be measured as *ACHIEVEMENT* or *POTENTIAL*, i.e. is assessment backward or forward looking? (Wilson, et al., 1989). Wilson, et al. argue, it is possible to demonstrate that *any assessment* is capable of being used for both purposes though the emphasis is different at different points in the process ...(Wilson, J. D., In Wilson, J et al., 1989:4). This obviously applies to INSET.

The alternative approach that had seen education as a process in which enquiry, judgement, questioning and discovery led to personal development of individuals was feared to be excluded

or devalued too. Teachers were -still are- judged according to the efficient instruction of pupils, who would be (are) assessed by following pre-packaged knowledge ready for assessment.

Self-evaluation implemented in a good light is said to be crucial to the concept of the reflective practitioner. Teacher appraisal enables self-evaluation to take place and provides a framework for recording a teacher's strengths and agreed targets for development (Shaw, 1992: 33). But the philosophy that teachers' performance results in teachers being helped to respond to changing-demands and to recognise their professional potential appeared to have been distorted at the time, unfortunately.

Schools started having heavy demands for excellence made on them by the government, and LEAs, though actually very little commitment and co-operation was offered as to HOW to GET IT. To this, Graham (1985) held out that 'those who seek professional excellence should also look for new and clear methods to reach it'. The challenge faced to meet all teachers' needs was, undoubtedly, not an easy one. Most significant yet, the possible fact that the role of LEAs and training institutions had been reduced made the schools' role essential and more final. Schools had then to be prepared

*'...to be pro-active and to augment their effectiveness at all teacher's training levels namely: whole school policies, with individuals, and in the classroom'.*

(Shaw, 1992).

The Grant-Related In-service-Training (GRIST), LEA Training Grants Scheme (LEATGS) as the DES preferred to call it was born in 1986 though began operation during 1987. Del Goddard ((1989) sees GRIST as part of 'a clear government strategy imposed on the unwilling at the drop of a hat'. It is a scheme made of law, finance, structure, accountability and the establishment of a particular relationship between the DES and LEAs, and between the LEA and its schools and colleges.

GRIST as a design was a centralising mechanism that put the teaching profession in an imposed cage, the bars formed by the National Curriculum and categorical funding. Outside that cage would line up the results of performance indicators, which would give teachers a sharp prod. This cage would not give teachers any freedom, and /or space for professional teaching owing to the imposed conditions. Teachers would be seen as encouraging pupils to pass tests by 'replicating the knowledge, rather than encouraging them to get development' (McBride, 1989).

By 1987, Circular 9/87 outlined plans and spending for 1988. It set out the Secretary of State's objectives more forcibly, regular consultation with individual teachers and consideration of needs



being stressed. It also referred to the evaluation of the results of *INSET* in relation to the improved teaching and learning procedures. There was an urgent need to ensure that training was good value for money. The expenditure of the government was £207 m, £77 m for national priorities and £130 for local priorities. The third part of the total budget devoted to national priorities, would predict their importance for the years to come (e.g. ERA and the NC advent).

### 2.2.3 THE EDUCATION REFORM ACT (ERA) 1988

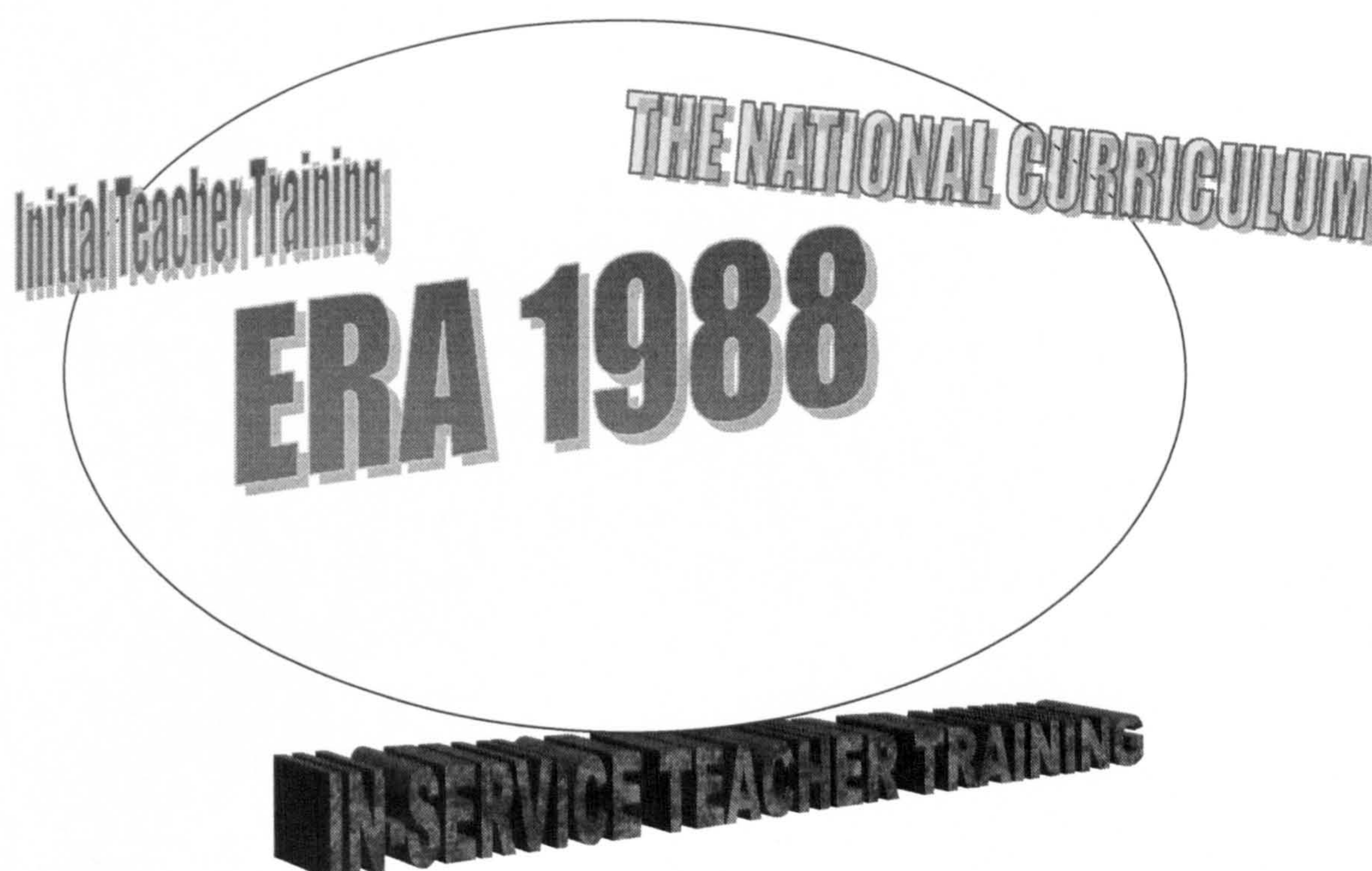


Fig. 1 Present writer's representation of theory.

Mrs Margaret Thatcher as Prime Minister and leader of the Conservative government, gave a particular gloss and direction to central government's interest in education. The Education Reform Act of Kenneth Baker was born as a consequence of a systematic analysis of the strengths and weakness of the English School system and the resulting White Paper. The latter called for national agreement about what should be included in the school curriculum and about the standards that should be expected and achieved (Bolton, E, 1994 In Wilkin, M & Sankey, D, 1994:20). ERA introduced new reforms intended to create choice and competition as well as an education market that reflected the macro-philosophies of Thatcherist conservatism. It also confirmed in legislation the NC and its associated forms of assessment that has developed out of the long-running, cross-party political debate of the previous decade.



Nonetheless, behind the passing of the Educational Reform Act (ERA) in 1988 'lay a shared and common concern' (Bolton, 1994) to enhance the quality of education along with the raise of standards in British schools (Moon, 1991). As a consequence, quality, relevance, breadth and depth of study and standards became the key words in the education debate at the time. The Director of the DES (1988) predicted

***'The Education Reform Act 1988 will have a major impact on the work of schools and bring about far reaching changes'***

(Elizabeth Crowther Hunt. In Hart & Russell & 1988: vii).

The 1988 Act would increase the powers of the Secretary of State for Education and Science. It gave the department 'a greater executive role ever' (Thomas, J, 1990:56). The Act would bring about the most profound changes in education since 1944. It basically legislated for a National Curriculum (NC), and for changes at both the initial and in-service training levels (see Fig.1 above).

Hart, & Russell (1988, ibid.) illustrate ERA 1988 and what it means in practice through a training-based video package. The video was a joint production by BBC Education in association with The Industry Society, and the National Association of Head Teachers. Its main purpose was to

***'...Clarify issues about which there has been question or concern; to initiate discussion on a school's response to the challenge set; to encourage a positive approach to change in education; to explain the main implications of 5 key areas namely: National Curriculum, Assessment and Testing, Grant Maintained Schools, Open Enrolment, and Local Management'.***

(Hart, D & Russell, U, 1988).

According to the authors, the video might be shown to a range of large or small audiences. It provides discussion and questions on the 5 main topics, particularly on Local Management of Schools with governors and about the National Curriculum and Assessment and Testing with teaching staff. Since ERA 1986 and 1988 are considered to have given Governors a key role in the management of schools, the video might be shown to them as well. This would give information, raise awareness, and enable existing new or potential governors in their particular experience or skills to be put at the school's service (Hart & Russell, 1988). Special relevance is also given to that sector of companies which would foster industry/education links intending to encourage employers possibly to become governors.

The 16 minutes section allocated to Curriculum is explored next. The section is sub-divided into 6 sub-sections namely: 1) The National Curriculum which only applies to maintained (including



Grant Maintained) schools; 2) The Councils; 3) The Subject Working Groups; 4) Assessment and Testing; 5) The timetable; and 6) Religious Education (RE).

## 2.2.4 THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM

As the video shows, the National Curriculum, which only applies to Maintained Schools (including Grant Maintained), consists of four mandatory elements,

- 1) To require schools to teach all their pupils the core (Maths, English and Science. In Wales, Welsh is taught instead of English) and other foundation subjects (history, geography, technology, music, art, physical education, a modern foreign language for the secondary stage and Welsh for Wales in schools which are not Welsh-speaking ones) for a reasonable time.
- 2) To introduce as appropriate attainment targets and programmes of study into schools in each core and other foundation subjects for each key stage, e.g., the beginning of compulsory education to age 7 (KS1); age 8 to 11(KS2); age 12 to 14 (KS3); and age 15 to the end of compulsory education (KS4).

In the NC, programmes of study are established by subject-groups reflecting the attainment targets and setting out the content to be taught to pupils. Teachers

*‘ ... Would be able to decide what is taught with a view to making sure that pupils achieve the attainment targets’.*

Schools control the organisation of what is taught (e.g., by setting out schemes of work at various stages), so that, as the document reads ‘the fullest possible scope for professional judgement on the delivery of the curriculum is preserved’. It gives schools freedom to establish their own targets in knowledge, skills and understanding that pupils should normally be expected to have at the ages 7, 11, 14, and 16.

- 3) To introduce assessment and testing arrangements for the attainment targets.

In practice, nonetheless, teachers do have to follow strictly the NC programme due to the fact that examination demands and pupils’ progress are measured against national standards as mentioned above. An arrangement would be designed to give a national coherent, systematic form of assessment. It would be carried out at ages 7, 11, 14, and 16. Much of this assessment in non-examined subjects would be taken as an integral part of classroom work but ‘central to the assessment process’. There would be nationally prescribed tests for all pupils to supplement individual teachers’ assessment. The tests would be administered and marked by teachers, and

the marking would be externally moderated to establish arrangements for reporting of assessment results.

- 4) To give pupil's assessment just to their parents, school's governors and the LEA in the pupil's interest.

The public's reporting of the aggregated results at the end of any key stage, would be then the subject of one year's dry run. Other subsections of the NC in the video deal with:

1) *The National Curriculum Councils*, a Curriculum Council for Wales and a School Examination and Assessment Council would be appointed by the Secretary of State. 2) *The Subject working Groups*' function would be that of establishing programmes of study which reflect the attainment targets and set out the minimum content which pupils would be taught at different stages within the core and foundation subjects. 3) *The Task Group on Assessment and Testing* (TGAT) was set up to make recommendations about how children's performance and progress across the subjects of the NC would be assessed and be reported to those with the right to know about it. 4) *The timetable* for the introduction of the NC was complex and lengthy, comprising the following years after the passing of the act, for its implementation. All pupils not embarked on General Certificate of Secondary Education courses ought to have core and other foundation subjects within their timetable for a reasonable length of time. 5) Finally, the video deals with *Religion Education*, and the Collective Workship that must be provided to pupils in schools.

#### **2.2.4.i THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM AS A CHANGE/REFORM**

Theoretically speaking, *change* has been considered as a 'generic term embracing concepts' (Prescott and Hoyle, 1976:27). It is an on-going process of development, and might have positive or negative connotations. In education, (additional) changes are imperative so as to achieve curriculum changes, e.g., methods of assessment and learning (Tolley, In Murphy and Moon, 1989:237). Whether change is sought after or resisted, and happens by chance or design; whether it is looked at from the viewpoint of reformers or those they manipulate, of individuals or institutions, the response is characteristically ambivalent (Marris, 1975). For the implementation of a curriculum and its consequent changes, a demand for teacher training is due. Schools should adapt the instruction for teachers to meet the new demands that curriculum reform brings (McNamara, 1990). UDEs, teacher training agencies, training institutions and schools themselves need to be ready for the changes derived from a new curriculum. Within this frame, teacher training institutions



*‘Are being mandated as to how they should prepare both student teachers and serving teachers to deliver the National Curriculum’.*

(McNamara, 1990)

By the same token, to change a curriculum, consultation of those involved in the implementation of the reform ought ideally to be done so as to avoid imposition. Marris points out that there is a difference between voluntary and imposed change. This is inevitable, despite the fact that all real change involves loss, anxiety and struggle. Failure to

*‘...Recognise this phenomenon as natural and inevitable has meant that we tend to ignore important aspects of change and misinterpret others’.*

(Marris, 1975. In Fullan 1992:31).

Therefore, curriculum change is not a single entity. It is multidimensional, the dimensions of implementing a policy or programme being three-fold : 1) the possible use of new or revised materials (direct instructional resources such as curriculum materials and technology); 2) the possible use of new teaching approaches (new strategies or activities); and 3) the possible alteration of beliefs such as pedagogical assumptions and underlying theories (Fullan, 1992). Two of the above conceptions, according to Stenhouse (1980), correspond to renewal and the third to innovation. In curriculum change it is also crucial to gain an overview of success by checking whether change has actually happened at the different levels where it may occur, that is: 1) the classroom; 2) school; and 3) local authority or nation (Belkin et al., 1992:31). This is to avoid running the risk of appraising ‘non-events’.

In the UK the curriculum literature has suffered three different phases of change. 1) The first curriculum movement occurred during the late 60s through to the early 70s. This period was considered as a period of heightened curriculum activity world-wide as well. Funded Agencies were in charge of those changes, and in Britain it meant the Schools Council (SC). 2) The second phase happened during the late 1970s through to the 80s, when schools were being encouraged to act as their own change agents. 3) Eventually, in 1988 the National Curriculum of England and Wales was established as a result of the Educational Reform Act.

ERA 1988 has been the first act ever to use in its title the word REFORM (Brehony, 1990). It, to a certain extent, frames attitudes to education as a whole amongst the population and suggests *inadequacies*, which require *reform*. An inference might well be that the government’s model of INSET since 1980 had been a ‘deficit one’. Wallace wrote challenging a decade ago that, not surprisingly if the teachers go further, they will find that this legislation is now designed to maintain its prior deficiencies, as



*‘the real seizure of power is not by central from local governments but centrally by politicians from professionals’*

(Wallace, 1990:225).

Given its deficiencies, the NC has been seen by many, especially by the teachers, as detrimental to the profession. Potential factors influencing complaints have been that teachers were not gradually prepared for the change. Most importantly, perhaps, that educational research was not taken into account in the drafting of the changes in the curriculum, thus it was an imposed change (see 2.2.5 below). This concept appears to be contemporary.

Teachers and their unions are still talking about consequences of the NC on training, personal satisfaction and growth through professional development. In science, for example, Sara Cassidy wrote this year, as she heard in the Association for Science Education Conference that ‘Science teachers have been demoralised by the NC, which they believe has damaged their professional autonomy’ (‘Gloom over Curriculum’ in TES (No 4358), January 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:9). In addition, recent Professor Jenkins’ (of Leeds University) research results showed that many science teachers find the NC

*‘Too restrictive and inflexible to allow them to meet the needs of all their pupils...that teachers believed their professional authority had been severely curtailed...’*

(Jenkins, Edgar, TES, (No 4358), January 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:9)

The belief that the NC told science teachers what to teach but left them free to decide how to teach has, according to Jenkins, been steadily eroded by the promotion of best practice. He complained that best practice had become part of politicians’ rhetoric and challenged the assumption that standards would rise if all teachers followed the same best practice...that what really mattered in science teaching ‘could never be mandated and could only be acquired by experience of teaching’. In his view, only a few policy makers understand science teachers’ fundamental and experience-based ownership of what they do, and he acknowledges the need to see the teachers as ‘*partners in*, rather than *objects of the reform*’. This was just an example of the teachers’ thoughts in one subject. The same may be true for other subject-areas of study.

## **2.2.4.ii TRENDS OF CURRICULUM CHANGE IN THE UK**

The educational system in any society is seen as a social institution which needs to meet the demands of change along with other institutions. These institutions aim for development and respond to changes within society. One of these changes is ‘curriculum’, given that this is the



basis of the educational system. After the 1988 Act, centralisation came to be a very fashionable word, upon the management of the teaching force approach. The particular kinds of curriculum would be implemented, controlled and safeguarded at the direction of central government (Tickle, 1990). The deprofessionalisation of teachers was likely to occur as a result of centralised control and increased bureaucratisation, which would turn teachers into technicians, charged with specific skill tasks.

Teachers' accountability threatened to perish merging into the direction of individual teacher's performance and assessment. School self-evaluation and LEAs systematic teacher appraisal seemed to have been the two keys to assessment of teachers' performance. These procedures included no fully established models of teachers' appraisal by LEAs. LEAs should ideally, have gone through the full cycle of assessment, staff development and follow-up actions as appropriate, as was anticipated by the DES (1985:7), some years before.

A CURRICULUM CONTROL ELEMENTS IN THE UK

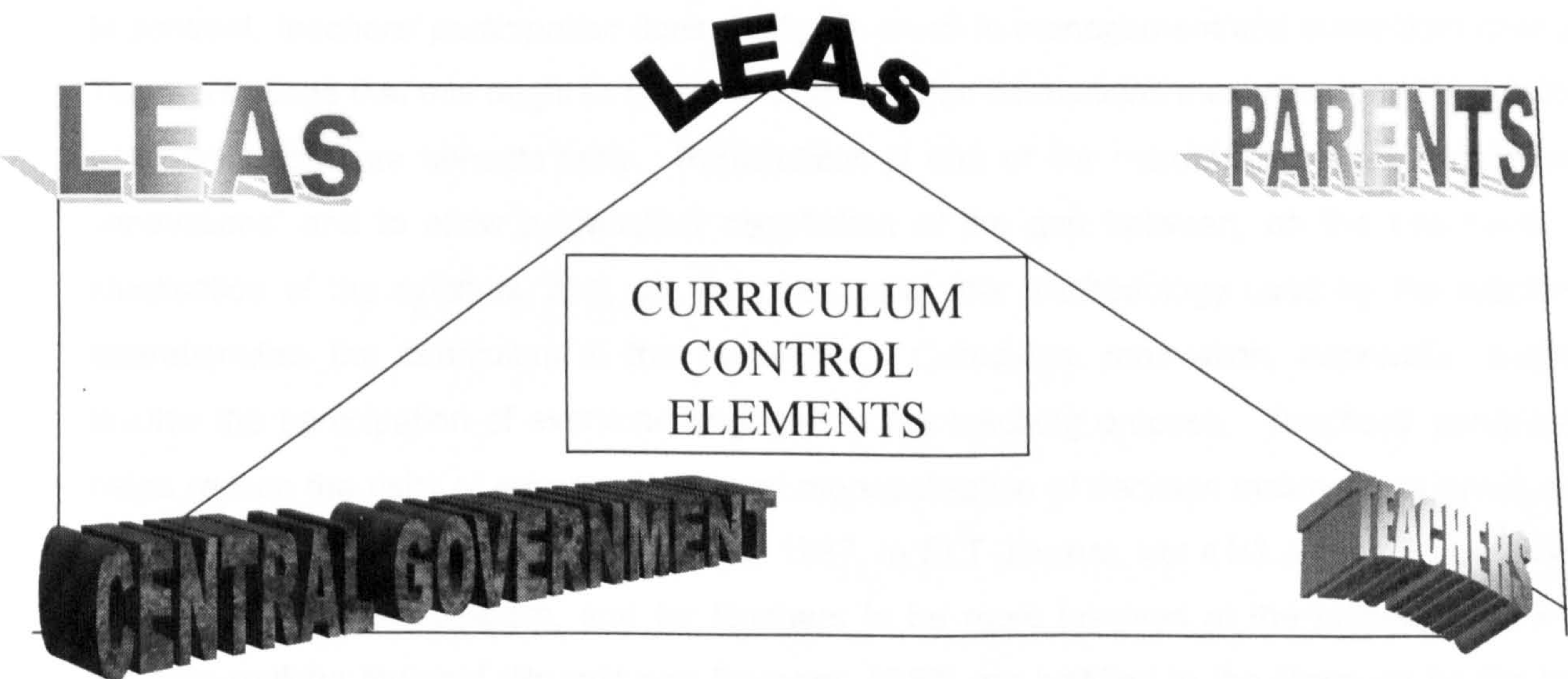


Fig 2. Present writer's interpretation from Lawton's (1980) theory.

Lawton (1980) considers that, traditionally, the curriculum has a threefold form of control, namely, 1) central government; 2) LEAs; and 3) teachers. (see triangle in Fig. 2 above). In the UK, as the quadrangle indicates (see Fig. 2 above), the inclusion of a fourth element is suggested, that is, parents (see quadrangle above). From 1994 onwards the parents are drawn into the form of control with increasing power. This is because, on the one hand, the news media, parents, and governors seem to share the view that teachers' needs lie in the area of receiving training to perform prescribed tasks (e.g. the National Curriculum). The government's rhetoric draws special attention to their expectations from ERA 1988 through the LEAs. Within this framework,



***‘LEA advisors will have greater activity to ensure that children have access to best practice...and this will involve the authority in genuine dialogue with teachers and PARENTS so that PARENTS can appreciate good practice when they see it’***

(Naybour, 1990:139).

The growing power and influence that parents have in schools, and their right to be reassured, although their aspirations are old-fashioned and sometimes inappropriate (Greaves, 1995), appears to put even more pressure on teachers. As a result, there is a major need for *teachers* to have the ability to communicate with parents not just about their children’s progress and attainments, but also about the rationale behind their methodology (Sallis, 1990: 150). *Parents* have the support of *governors* who are the link between teachers and parents in schools, helping the latter to understand why schools do certain activities and helping the former to understand why parents want to understand (Sallis, *ibid.*). This appears to be the current approach to education used by the British culture, which is in the main ‘system and product orientated’ (Wallace, 1990).

In contrast, *teachers’ participation* does not figure much in management and curriculum changes. Teachers allege that this ought to be done to ensure that innovations maximise benefits, minimise costs and distribute benefits fairly. Participation is one of the means to prevent resistance to ‘innovations’ and to allow a smoother negotiation of the gap between, on the one hand, the idealisation of the syllabus, and, on the other hand, the methodology used by the teacher to operationalise the curriculum in the classroom. Curriculum renovation, especially, ought to involve the participation of everyone engaged in the teaching process. Teachers’ participation helps reduce the risks of errors and prevent monopolisation of decision making by a group or an individual with vested interests (Kouraogo, 1987, in *ELT Journal*, Vol 41/3 July, 1987). Calls for an extended professionalism, and for teachers to be more involved at the highest level in the decision-making pyramid (Brumfit and Rossner, 1982) are justified in the literature by the belief that,

***‘ Teaching is not just a set of mechanically learned skills, but is rather an art acquired and improved by the teacher through self-initiated, self-sustained growth and development’***

(Kouraogo, P, 1987. In *ELT Journal*, Vol. 41/3 July, 1987).

An important question is **How much do teachers wish to be involved in decision making and change in schools?**



Wallace (1990), for example, criticised a decade ago, perhaps with some reason, that teachers do not actually show willingness to move towards the participatory and democratic ways of the prevailing culture. Consequently, they may have invited governors and politicians 'to push too far the boundary that must exist between the profession and the lay controller. He sees the *LEAs'* role as controllers and, if necessary, enforcers of the NC (T mode in 3.4). Within that context, they have to use their resources in particular advisory/inspectorial staff and INSET budget to prepare teachers for: 1) a new curriculum; 2) assessment of pupil performance; 3) recording pupil achievement; and 4) testing and reporting. He concludes that since teachers (officially at least) are local government employees, they must be trained to perform those functions. Their needs, regrettably, are seen as in 'simple training terms'. This implicitly calls for trends to new approaches, which provide for constant negotiation through bottom-up (B), top-down (T), and sideways (S) interaction between the main parties involved (interactive mode (I) in 3.4, Ap.E.3).

### **2.2.5 IMPLICATIONS OF ERA 1988 FOR INSET**

INSET before the current NC tended to be more decentralised. Similarly, change and innovations were spread out instead of being imposed from strongly centralised institutions (Kouraogo, 1987 ed.). The Act would significantly change the mechanism by which HEIs' training was controlled and financed as well.

The structures of INSET appeared more organised in the 1980s, particularly after the Circular 6/86 introduced new funding schemes, changes to schoolteacher's pay and conditions in 1987; appraisal and specified training days. The late 1980s brought a sea change in educational policy and practice, which effectively swept professional development along in its wake. It was, particularly, ERA 1988, which proved the major catalyst for changes (Glover & Law, 1996:1). With the advent of the NC (1988), and following the Act, LEAs, which employ teachers and manage the education system at local level, would play a more relevant role in ITT and INSET. These would become more school-based, while drawing upon rather than relying on the services of the teacher training institutions (SEO, 1989).

The government claimed to introduce the NC to improve the quality of education 'but is, at the same time silent on how the curriculum will, in fact enhance the quality and learning in schools' (Tisher & Wideen, 1990: 136). The latter is hard to understand given the devastating implications that ERA brought to the CPD of teachers in terms of content, funds, secondment opportunities, new routes, etc. As concluded from the ERA video, the training of teachers would be dominated by the demands of the NC that, according to many, Havilland (1988), among others, was imposed

by the Secretary of State after little or no consultation with the teaching profession. Three main INSET issues were evident if compared to national priorities:

- 1) training in teaching and planning of the curriculum in a multi-ethnic society was dropped for the first time;
- 2) training for heads and senior teachers involving school teacher appraisal was emphasised;
- 3) training in the core subjects areas (Science, Mathematics and English), as well as the shortage in technology, were dominated by the 1988 Act demands and the NC. By contrast, programmes of study and attainment targets would be introduced on a trial basis for a first cohort of pupils. The second cohort of pupils (ages 5 and 11) would be formally assessed and reported upon in 1992 and 1993.

Given that the NC is always at the forefront of the educational agenda, it is hardly surprising to report that there is little/no indication that national policy on teacher training is being informed by research findings (Tisher & Wideen, 1990:134). Most of the British research has been concerned with policy issues and shaped by social scientists who appear to be interested mainly in the structure, function of processes of institutions (Tisher & Wideen, 1990:135) but not much in the education and training of teachers while in-service (INSET). Evidence of a few cases of school-based development programmes has been reported by educational writers, e.g., by Rudduck (1982); Hopkins and Wideen (1984); and Day (1981). Typically, these programmes were directly supported by the schools (themselves) or by the teachers' centres but not by the government. Besides, the fact that DES (today DfEE) implemented funds transfer from provider bodies to LEAs for being the teachers' employers (McNamara, 1991 in Tisher & Wideen, 1991:122), empowered them, so

*'...they (the LEAs) would be able to set INSET policies within their region in the light of their own and national priorities and the concurrent training needs of their teaching force'*

(McNamara, 1991:123).

All these changes have greatly affected the nature and provision of teacher training (McNamara (1990). The ill functioning of the system, apparently, caused a significant decrease in experienced teachers' attendance at INSET courses leading to awards, the immediate consequence possibly being 1) the deprofessionalisation of education; and 2) little importance given to INSET by the educational authorities as well as policy makers (see findings in support of this generalisation from data presented later in this thesis in Ch. 4 & 5).

Recommendations have been, among others, that they (the government) should re-direct their attention to the content of teacher training programmes and the essential role of the teacher, which is (arguably of course) to 'transmit knowledge and skills' (Tisher & Wideen, 1990:136).



This idea was also put forward by Greaves in the European Conference in 1995. In his view, INSET ought to be given major attention in future (Greaves, 1995). A question arising would be:

### **How such training would be improved?**

For Tisher et al, this would ideally involve three main issues:

- 1) improving the general organisation of INSET;
- 2) choosing the specific methods which would serve as the vehicle for training; and
- 3) involving evaluation and follow-up.

Tisher, et al. (1990).

Tisher et al., suggest that in an effort to fulfil the existing gaps, researchers ought to seek how teacher training and specifically INSET could be improved. This would help to enhance the ability of teachers in their daily teaching process, and of students, to convert understanding of the subject matter into effective practice in the classroom. They also point out that the nature of preparation that teachers receive in training institutions should be highly questioned by researchers as there is a lack of encouragement, equipment, etc. Tisher et al (ibid.) coincided with Greaves in that there is little assessment and no follow-up given to INSET by (not only) schools (see 2.10 below). They detected a lack of principles and policies behind the INSET provision (point largely corroborated in the present study). They gave rise to similar questions about the National Curriculum's impact upon the quality of children's education and about the poor morale and practices of teachers due to the defective system in which the new curriculum started operating.

Also, teachers seemed to have had more participation in curriculum matters before ERA and the NC. Sometimes outside agents such as universities would link between pre-service and in-service teacher development and curriculum renewal (Bolak, 1983). Practising teachers had a central role in the process as it has been illustrated, for example, in the GALF project in Scotland (Clark, 1984) and the Graded Objectives Movement in Modern Languages (Harding et al. 1980, Buckby et al. 1981: 1983). In these cases, teachers were encouraged to participate in the revision, implementation, and evaluation of second-language syllabuses. But that was not possibly the case in all subject areas, and has not, apparently, been the case either after ERA 1988.

Ideally, classroom teachers ought to be given a more active role in all aspects of curriculum renewal, namely: syllabus design, revision, methodological innovations, implementation, evaluation, development of teaching materials, INSET (Kouraogo, 1987. in *ELT Journal* (Volume 41/3, July 1987: 171). This would give more participation in what teachers implemented (see

2.2.6 below). In the UK a stronger agreement between teachers and LEAs on curriculum renewal would possibly allow greater emphasis to the European Dimension (ED) in teachers' initial and in-service training, as was indicated in the 1988 ERA Resolution. This would, perhaps, have broadened teachers' horizons and let them share and learn from curricular experiences with their European counterparts. But this example seems to be forgotten very often, as seen below.

### **2.2.6 ERA 1988, THE EUROPEAN DIMENSION (ED) AND INSET**

The signatories to the 1988 Resolution agreed to give greater emphasis to the European Dimension in teachers' initial and in-service training. This would be done by: 1) provision of basic information on the educational systems of the other member states; 2) by co-operation of teacher training institutions in other member states, particularly by developing joint programmes for students and teachers mobility as part of INSET. 3) The ED would also be emphasised by making provision in the framework of in-service training for specific activities as to enhance serving teachers awareness of it in education, and to give them the opportunity of keeping up to date with community development.

Despite the agreement, the UK curriculum appears to lack a European policy, unlike in other continental countries where this has a great value. This feature, apparently, originates in the British government's tendency to emphasise local dimensions and so, give little importance to the delivery of a broader dimension of European affairs. Greaves condemned that attitude, asserting in 1995 that 'of course, the last government's attitude is, at best, equivocal as was shown in its response to the Green Paper' which pleaded for the European Dimension and INSET (Greaves, 1995). His prediction was that Europe would continue to comprise groups of mutually suspicious nationalities. To fill this gap in the curriculum, the teaching profession was advised to be Europeanised, to forget about that neurosis suffered by most of the European countries about, for example, learning foreign languages.

This policy might be taken up by the LEAs through the allocation of funds for a teachers' exchange scheme in maths, science, foreign languages, and the like. The opportunity is advantageous for British teachers since English is taught in every corner of Europe and therefore allows for all subject teachers mobility throughout Europe as part of their CPD experience. A remaining question, however, is '*whether or not the (British) teachers have a curiosity*' about other European partners' school systems (Greaves, 1995). It is apparent that foreign language teachers have been the most, if not the only ones benefiting from these chances. LINGUA, the Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges, and other agencies, offer support and financial assistance to teachers (for years) to visit foreign countries. In practice, very few



teachers, according to the European Conference Report (Greaves, 1995) apply to those plans. This is due possibly to the bureaucratic procedures that follow the applications; the shortage in funds to provide for secondments and supplies; along with scarce interest for the exchanges.

Within this context, universities are seen as the institutions that ought to start making students aware of, and stimulating them towards the European Dimension. 'The university should work to meet these needs through ITT and INSET levels' (Greaves, 1995) so teachers would essentially need to be educated by inclusion of a module of programme of study related to the partner states in Europe. They should have the responsibility to provide for the student's knowledge of other systems, their differences and similarities compared to the British one. Also, an INSET programme in all areas, (not just Languages), along the same lines would be necessary. Most importantly, teachers' education association with universities and other HEIs might be a step forward to fight back the statement that the relocation to schools of teachers' education and training might be diminishing the range of expertise in the field of curriculum renewal because

*'Schools are far from offering a wider range of expertise in the process of curriculum renewal'*

(Greaves, 1995: 20)

This idea of europeanisation might become true shortly. Very recently (June, 2000), the DfEE launched throughout England a Teacher's International Development Programme which aims to expand their chances for international study visits or exchanges ('Teachers to be paid to Study' by Andrew Ward) in The Association of Teachers and Lectures (ATL) Report of June/July (2000:5)). It was revealed that £3m a year will be provided for 2001 and 2002 in addition to the existing provision; and importantly, that £150,000 will help to make this aim easier as supply cover, childcare and dependant's costs (in exceptional circumstances) will be available. Minister Estelle Morris said in May, 2000 that up to 5,000 teachers may participate yearly in the programme with a certificate in recognition of their involvement. This professional development programme is welcome by ALT, though some teachers believe that some school managers and colleagues in schools are (will be) not supportive of international exchanges and that there are financial disincentives taking part. Thus

*'For all teachers to have equal access to these opportunities (international visits & exchanges), the management of some schools will need to be more creative, imaginative, and flexible'.*

(Morris, Estelle, ALT, June/July 2000: 5)

## 2.2.7 LAST DECADE OF THE 20<sup>th</sup> CENTURY

Changes in CPD/INSET in the UK occurred in the *early years of the last decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century* alongside massive and unexpected UK society changes, namely: increasing unemployment, increasing rate of crime, decline in manufacturing industry and change in family life (Bassey 1993. In Calderhead, 1994).

Factors such as : 1) the centralisation of education; 2) the advent of the National Curriculum (1988); 3) the summative examination of children at 7-11-14 and 16; 4) reduction of assessment basically to final state examinations; and 5) the decisive influence of parents in school policies, as described by Bassey (1993:64), were influential in the government's decision to take on the education system. Also, in June 1995 Greaves described the situation of the teaching profession and INSET in the UK as chaotic at the European Conference. In his own words

*'Education in the United Kingdom is going through a maelstrom of change. The central government has taken charge of the education...'*

(Bassey, 1993. In Calderhead, 1994:65).

Teachers could take part in INSET at any time in their careers; they were responsible to contribute to their own and their colleagues' professional development...participation in training being one of their professional duties (EURYDICE, 1995:135-39) (see 2.4 below). Along this, the 1990s saw the development of a more autonomous school system and the establishment of 'site-based school management' with a linked focus on institutional accountability. As quoted

*'In effect, there has been a government-driven push towards school-centredness –but, importantly, within the framework of greater government-directedness'*

(Glover & Law, 1996:2)

After ERA, all teacher training affairs changed from being college-based to, more school-based (Bassey, 1994). Since CPD/INSET was changing to a more school-based organisation, establishments involved had –still have- to answer to heavier demands. Schools and colleges working within a new infrastructure and relationships were subject to greater scrutiny of their performance through the OFSTED inspections, publication of league tables showing annual public examination results for individual schools, parents, governors, etc.

Schools, universities and colleges were on a business footing. A market economy (Tisher and Marvin, 1990: 122) was created in which the employers made use of training themselves or



turned to training institutions that might mount courses according to the teacher's immediate needs. LEAs' advisers offered a broad range of INSET courses and so did UDEs. They all faced an open competition to earn the schools' funds devoted to INSET. Suspicion and rivalry would arise sometimes among them, and the system was based upon the principle of payment, although to a lesser extent lately. There also seemed to exist -still does- a lack of national response to make those courses as effective as they could and should be.

The prevalent ideology, according to Bassey (1993), was that of the political right, with the notions of competition and elitism operating in the schools market. The regular appraisal of teachers was introduced and used as a basis for a *merit pay system*. There was a significant fall in many experienced teachers' interest in awards such as Diplomas or Masters' degrees, which in turn, gave rise to an increasing number of short, school focused courses. In the government's efforts to remove current responsibilities and weaken the power of LEAs, funds were devolved entirely to schools, through the Local Management of Schools (LMS) scheme. Due to a number of school demands and obstructions such as: covering staff absent on INSET with supply teachers; buying materials and equipment for the subject practices; repairing school buildings (obligation previously undertaken by LEAs), INSET became one of the first casualties of any school budget plans (Greaves, 1995:16).

The probationary year was abolished (and restored lately) and the new teachers were labelled as Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs). They were to be provided by their school with a kind of induction INSET which financially represented another investment for schools as these teachers were supposed to have a reduced time-table and a properly designed programme of support. On the other hand, due to the universities' suspicion of their own teacher education faculties, and of education as a discipline, the preparation of students became more vulnerable. England and Wales were feared to be in danger of returning to a situation where future teachers were apprenticed to schools, with little or no real university education, compared to other European countries which were, apparently, moving right in the opposite direction. *Short-term training and development* was often school-based, and increasing numbers of teachers *self-fund(ed)* their own *long-term professional development*, while secondment was -still does- dried up (Glover & Law, 1996:2).

Neither was research being much encouraged (with some few exceptions). When it was carried out, the results might well be ignored or not influential in the formulation of school policies for INSET (see 2.12 below). For Greaves, it was a reason for embarrassment to report upon such opposing trends or directions (Greaves, 1995:14) in other European counterparts. The Teacher

training Agency (TTA) seemed to have taken some action in this respect, as will be seen in section 6.4.1 (Chapter 6).

During the *last quinquennium* of the century, the teaching profession did seem to be less and less attractive for teachers in the UK. Vacancies and recruitment were a recognised problem. Statistics seem to show that in 1999, nationally, one in 20 posts went unfilled, though in inner and outer London schools the figure actually rose to 1 in 12, math and design technology being the main problems. Figures also show that only 6% of professionals in education returned to it in 1999, if compared to 45% who were newly qualified. Available figures, may, however, have underestimated shortages, as heads did their best to recruit (e.g., foreign, etc, replacements, raise class sizes, and so on), resulting in fewer reports of 'vacancies' than really existed.

The deprofessionalisation of education seems to have continued as in the previous years, and teachers seemed to feel more under pressure. Criticism went sharper –still does- towards teachers' performance due precisely to the lack of proper qualifications and training. As a matter of example, Nicolas, Barnard reported on findings of the survey for the School-Teachers' Review Body ('Teachers 'ill-suited' to job ', TES (No 4358), January 7th, 2000:1, 2). Barnard points out that 'thousands of pupils are taught by teachers 'who do not have' the right skills or experience for the job'. Worst of all; that one in six teachers covering for 3,000 vacancies in schools in England and Wales is 'poorly matched to the job'; while 'more than a third are a poor match'. More severely, statistics show that in Merseyside 70% of covering teachers in all subjects were declared ill-suited to the job, 3 times that of any other region. These statistics seem to be in line with the idea held by many that Britain is suffering a process of **deprofessionalisation** in education, a direct result of the issue of '**resource reduction**'.

As a result of the resource reduction, another issue reported about was the teachers' pay level given that negotiations between teachers associations and the government do not materialise. In the report headed 'Classroom rises lag behind heads' (TES (No 4358) of January 7th, 2000:3), the National Union of Teacher (NUT) comments upon the 'School Teachers' Review Body' survey, which findings suggested a need for 'a large across-the-board-increase in 2000', as it had a (low) increase beyond belief. The NUT calls for an increase of 10% or £2000. David Blunkett (Education and Employment Secretary) has warned the NUT that some authorities would find it difficult to pay for anything much above inflation. Though NUT recognised the pressure head teachers are under, they think that 'so are classroom teachers' and that this just highlights the need for a significant increase for all teachers.



For 68% of class teachers, promotion offers the only hope of a rise beyond the annual rounds. Ministers, on the other hand, have gambled that

*‘Many will therefore find their new performance-related pay structure attractive, as it allows teachers to move to a new scale linked to annual appraisal’*

(Barnard, N, TES (4358), January 7th, 2000: 3).

New changes have been proposed for the new millennium in the UK to try to balance the provision (and focus) of INSET from policy and management development to a more subject oriented focus (see 2.10 on Focus of INSET) and computing technology. To this plan, conservative education spokeswoman Theresa May ironically declared that 'Labour is obsessed with targets'. She also condemned the literacy and numeracy strategies as 'one-size-fits all'. In her view, the imposition of one-approach results in a lack of flexibility to meet needs, while Unions reject criticism and attacks on teachers, and warn that they may react negatively to this new plan. In turn, DFEE spokesperson said that the Secretary's aim was not to attack secondary teachers but to offer help in 'the last area of schooling to come under the spotlight' (TES, (No 4358), January, 7th, 2000:3). The time will come when this project is a reality.

## Summary

INSET/CPD was a controversial topic in England and Wales during the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Especially after the Second World War, it remained the 'Cinderella' of teacher education' (Williams, 1991), being largely ignored by government in policy debates, frequently side-stepped in legislation, and too often the subject of 'recommendation and pragmatic action' (Burgess, 1993). In the 1980s and early 1990s, CPD remained very much in the half-shadows of the education debate, often influenced and implicated in various changes taking place in schools and ITT. In effect, CPD experienced changes largely as a by-product of developments elsewhere in the system. The NC implementation, the introduction of LMS, and appraisal in schools and colleges all led to significant demands for particular kinds of CPD and INSET making it increasingly reactive in approach...a more privatised service, but never centre-stage (Glover & Law, 1996:14). Nonetheless, during the last decade, INSET did undergo a quiet revolution and significant change in structure and relations around teachers' CPD. Though it was not intended, failures of initiatives elsewhere in the education service had frequently a 'knock-on' effect (Glover & Law, 1996:10) on the nature of INSET provision. Pring (1994) seems quite right when he asserts that the history of teacher training during the 20<sup>th</sup> century was one of

*‘Getting right the relationship of the theory of education with the practice of teaching, and of the apprenticeship to schools with the relationship to the university... ‘*

(Pring, 1994).

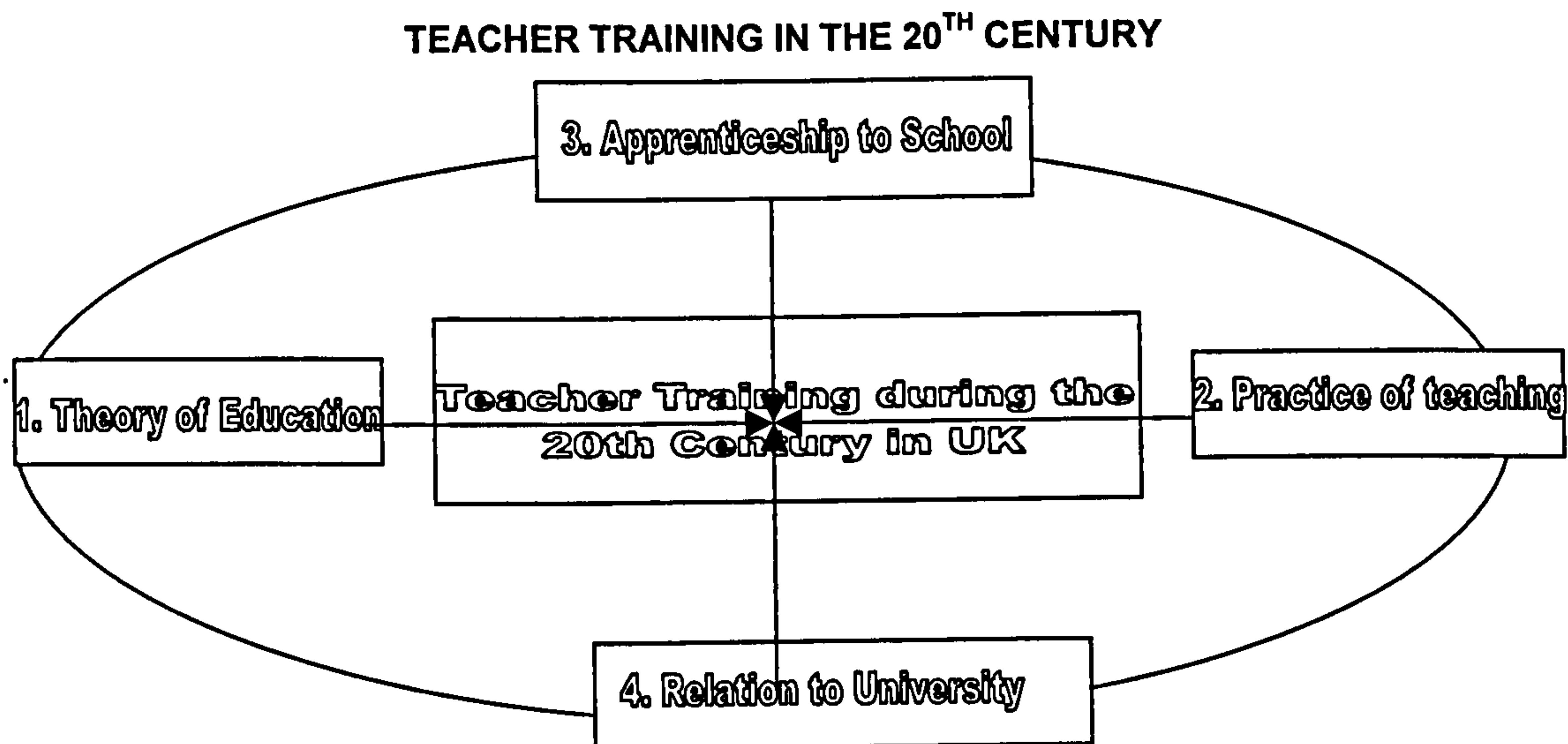


Fig.3 Writer's own Interpretation of Pring's (1994) theory.

An illustration of Pring's view has been intended in Fig. 3 above. Fully achieved of this statement would be ideal, but as it is suggested *'it is not right yet'* (Pring, 1994). The creation of a body of knowledge supported by a tradition of scholarship and research would be ideal in future, and that is found only in the university classroom ((4) in Fig.3 above).

Pring explains that 'if teaching is understood as a matter of acquiring skills and good practice, not as a matter of learning theory or developing a theoretical perspective'; and that 'if the theory does not exist' (in the universities), the powers and money are switched automatically to those who have the practice', namely, the schools (see 3 above),. That seems to be what has happened in the UK's teachers education and training system. A remaining question is

**Where could and where should training and particularly INSET/CPD be by the year 2000?**

## 2.2.8 YEAR 2000 AND BEYOND

As it is, universities are the future of the professional education and training of teachers. Schools are buying back from universities the ITT and INSET service with the new found money. The hypothesis is that 'if resources are denied to UDEs, they may not be there to be bought into'. In managerial terms, 'the traditional role of the universities can be, and has been, undermined' (Pring, in Wilkin, M & Sankey, D, 1994: 174-188) by several factors. One, the suspicion of the



relevance of theory to practice in education and the relationship between them has (somehow) damaged the concept of training, and teaching as a profession. The other, as Pring analyses, the readiness to economise where savings could be made –has ‘impoverished the language of education’ in the UK-. It is possible that if -somewhat paraphrasing Pring- the financial squeeze and the political scepticism together stop influencing the functions of higher education and interfering in the role HE has in the *education and training of teachers*, universities will survive. The key word appears to be ‘*partnership with schools*’ given that it provides the basis for the future commitment of universities to teacher training and the acknowledgement of teaching as a profession in the year 2000 and beyond. The hope is that the government will not fully succeed in the shifting power policy; and most importantly that teachers themselves continue to have aspirations to professional status. That professional aspiration cannot ‘for ever’ be suppressed (Pring, in Wilkin, M & Sankey, D, 1994: 174-188).

These seem to have been the main events with reference to INSET in an intended chronological order, e.g. since its very origin until the year 2000. However, the most recent developments, namely the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), the National College for School Leadership (NCfSL), and the General Teaching Council (GTC) have not been (intentionally) included yet. These will be treated separately (in Chap.6, 6.4) given its implications for educational policies in other contexts.

The remaining sections in this chapter deal with the *current* theoretical component of INSET in the UK, as announced in 2.1 above.

## 2.3 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF INSET/CPD: AIMS AND PURPOSES

Historical and political events, interests, and permanent changes in the education and training of teachers seem to have impeded policy makers in clearly formulating an open and well-grounded theoretical background for INSET in the UK. The shift of teacher training to schools appears to have also been influential in this, as evidenced in some of the sections to come.

As mentioned in 2.1 above, INSET/CPD terms are broadly interchangeable. A differentiation is however made between these terms and staff development, which embraces broader concepts. Aims of Staff Development may be classified in 4 categories relating to:

- 1) teaching staff
- 2) students
- 3) the organisation; and the
- 4) ancillary staff

Williams, G (1982)

From this point of view, teaching staff is only one part of the programme of staff development in any educational institution.

Aims relating particularly to the CPD of *teaching staff* could be stated under eight headings:

- 1) to give staff appreciation of the total school or college and of their department, and their place within the organisation;
- 2) to help staff to understand the direction in which the school/college is moving and where they fit into developments at departmental or organisational levels;
- 3) to improve performance in current jobs by remedying current weaknesses and developing strengths and potential strengths;
- 4) to help staff to identify and use new methods and techniques in their current jobs;
- 5) to prepare staff for changes and new responsibilities both in their current jobs and in areas of their probable promotion both within the organisation and in the education service generally;
- 6) to make jobs more interesting and satisfying;
- 7) to improve the professional growth of the teachers and to assist members of staff to develop themselves towards their full potential.
- 8) to develop staff so that they can work more co-operatively together in both departmental and other team work situations

(Williams, 1982:4).

Bolam, on the other hand, states more briefly that the INSET/CPD of teachers aims basically at:



- 1) adding to the teachers' professional knowledge;
- 2) improving their professional skills;
- 3) clarifying their professional value; and
- 4) enabling the students to be educated more effectively

(Bolam. 1982 a; 1993 in Glover & Law, 1996:3).

It appears that there is an imbalance in Bolam's classification, as it does concentrate only on the individual, leaving aside institutional aims. It may be, that he sees INSET as only devoted to the teachers no the institutions. This seems understandable considering that in the decade of the 1980s, institutional aims did not appear to coincide with those of the teaching force.

In a more integral way, INSET/CPD activities' aims in HEIs can be summarised in two broader objectives. As quoted from a document (flyer sheet) of a university in the NE of England (see U1 in Chapter 4) INSET aims are:

- 1) to contribute to school improvement by having a demonstrable impact in raising standards in schools
- 2) to support the long-term development of the teaching profession in the broadest sense.

(Continuing Professional Development 1999-2000 (at a University in the NE of England)).

After the change of teacher training from being college to a more school-based model (Bassey, 1994), INSET/CPD became also a more school-based organisation. To achieve their goals, schools have had to take their training role more seriously and to do this they have needed external training support. They have had to state their own aims, and to be more specific, first of all, upon what kind of INSET they require (Peck & Westgate, 1994), and secondly, with what purposes. Regrettably enough, there are still no clearly *established purposes* for INSET and/or standards against which to assess its effectiveness (see 2.10 on evaluation below). The ***purposes of INSET*** as inferred from the literature perhaps overlap with its aims and may be digested as follows:

- 1) to support in-service teachers in the different phases of their professional development, once they get involved in their careers.
- 2) to help in-service teachers achieve more effective competence with reference to knowledge and skills in the different areas of study for the preparation of pupils.
- 3) to enable practising teachers to cope better and get involved in with the continuous changes in educational policies and curriculum.
- 4) to up-date, train and feed practitioner teachers' knowledge in different fields of education, but in the main, in the field they were initially trained, by means of workshops, seminars, etc.
- 5) to inform teachers about the latest developments and innovations in sciences, technology, teaching methods and techniques, in order to obtain a better out-put in pupils' achievement.
- 6) to maintain the teachers' interest in their careers and personal development by means of courses, meetings, etc.
- 7) to keep in-service teachers united to form teams to research, enquire, discuss and conclude on the different areas of interest.



- 8) to support beginner teachers appropriately while on the job when training is required. Finally,
- 9) to prepare a measure of teachers' responsibilities in the training of student teachers.

## 2.4 POLICIES FOR INSET IN THE UK

There are no strict national policies for the training of in-service teachers in the UK, apart from those that concern the school-based INSET (SBI). As stated, teachers 'may take part in In-service at any time in their career as well as contribute to their personal and their colleagues professional development as appropriate' (Eurydice document, 1995:135-139) (see 2.2.7 above). Participation in In-service education and training is considered as one of the professional duties of teachers. Yet, it does not seem always to apply due partly to the shortages and partly to the devolution of INSET funds entirely to schools (LMS). The immediate consequences of this are, among others, the weakening of LEAs, and the obligation (on paper) of individual schools to cover staff absences on INSET with supply teachers. INSET may well become one of the first casualties of schools plans, as the provision largely depends upon a school's budget (Greaves, 1995).

It follows that training policies largely depend on individual schools' efforts to meet their own needs and to ensure consistent expectations and approaches across their teams. Schools are due to monitor policies and their implementation through team leaders (Shaw, 1992:42). Once they have established their own policies, sometimes with the help of LEAs, communication is considered to be a vital factor in their dissemination. It is a duty for individual schools to formulate and publish their own policies on the various aspects of teacher training in all its phases, since they would differ from school to school, attending to their particular needs and the various options existing on INSET. Everyone ought to be aware of those policies, which are usually printed in the departments and year or house handbooks. *Due to the absence of general policies on INSET*, school's specific policies must be clear and brief to facilitate the readers' task.

Departing from the idea that INSET in the UK is a process rather than an event, Nathan (1987), among others, is of the view that this should be mostly *school-based* to assure its effectiveness. This form of INSET would avoid the problem of contradiction between provision and necessity, as happened once, when the evidence collected by an LEA survey was found to be contradictory to that gleaned from a school-focused one. Teachers in the UK are only obliged to attend 5 training days at school (professional training days, according to Gough et al, 1990) either provided by the



school itself or bought in from LEAs, HEIs, etc (see Providers of INSET in 2.6 (p.64) below for expansion).

Schools are also recommended to use in-house working groups to plan and deliver INSET training. These groups themselves could eventually become a medium for staff development by, for example, rotating the chair (Nathan, 1987, Bolam, 1976:85-87). This was successfully experienced in places such as Castle school, near Bristol. An advantage of schools working on the provision of their own and their colleagues' INSET is seen as an effective method to co-ordinate the school's needs with those of their teachers (Nathan, *ibid.*). A possible problem arising from this might well be that of *curriculum provision*.

To tackle this problem at school level needs, three elements ought to be considered, namely: 1) curriculum change, 2) personal change, and 3) interpersonal change. Easen's model describes a process, which seems to be successful as follows:

- 1) PROVIDING the curriculum experience
- 2) DESCRIBING what is being done,
- 3) JUDGING it against explicit criteria
- 4) DECIDING whether to improve provision, then
- 5) CONSIDERING the problem and what needs to be done to solve it.

(Easen, 1985)

Easen is aware, nevertheless, that part of the difficulty lies in the fact that innovators very often concentrate on the formulated products of their own thinking rather than attempting to articulate the process which led them to want to initiate change in the first place. For him, innovators have to be sure that the change happens, that change is a matter of finding meaning and satisfaction in 'new ways' of doing things rather than just being a question of learning new skills. Besides, given that INSET very seldom seems to fulfil teachers' demands, its providers have to look for new methods and techniques to get to know teachers' needs through, for example, individual dialogue, questionnaires, interviews, etc., mostly to signify the importance of communication in the identification of needs for INSET. This way, Harrow considers that curriculum implication for INSET would be more positive because it would cover the real and practical levels of teachers' needs, priorities, arrangements for implementation, follow up and most importantly, a review to be fed to a suitable borough advisory committee on INSET (Harrow, 1985:8). The direct implication of this would give great value to school-based INSET, since teachers would be at the very heart of the INSET process. In spite of the apparent benefits a school-based INSET seems to bring, its effectiveness may still be questioned.

Along with this, there are some training issues on which there should be clear policies at schools as included in Fig. 4 below.

**TRAINING ISSUES ON WHICH THERE SHOULD BE CLEAR POLICIES AT SCHOOLS**

1. Initial teacher training: students on teaching practice, school-based ITT, etc.
2. First Appointments: Induction, support and assessment
3. Induction of experienced teachers new to the school
4. Induction and support of supply teachers
5. In-service training for staff from a range of backgrounds and at various levels of seniority
6. Appraisal and line management

**Fig. 4** Adaptation from Shaw (1992)

In short, there are no official policies on INSET in the UK besides the 5 compulsory training days at school (see 2.6.3 below for expansion). Therefore, it is up to schools to decide upon the type of INSET required to meet their particular needs. Apparently, in several cases, the provision of INSET does not match the teachers' needs, due precisely to a lack of policy in their identification. Since INSET activities do not significantly up-grade teachers professionally, their motivation to attend the courses/activities might well end up being considerably poor and its planning and organisation questioned.

**2.5 PLANNING AND ORGANISATION OF INSET**

**2.5.1 Responsibility for INSET at national and local level**

So far, it has been said that in planning and delivering a programme of INSET, it is necessary to use the perceived needs as a starting point. As the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers (ACSTT, 1974) put it sometime ago, the planning of INSET should begin from the needs to be met, that is, the different but related needs of teachers, schools and LEAs. In practice, it has been noted that



***‘Provision based on teachers needs is extremely rare and the absence of an input by teachers is the most frequent cause of a lack of balance of provision’***

(Blackburn & Moisan, 1986:52).

Although the task of matching need with provision is complex, it is central to the improvement of teaching quality (ACSET, 1984: para. 37). Thus, INSET planners at national and local levels have to be aware of individual as well as group needs to their planning to avoid what Easen (1985:104) refers to in teacher training as ‘unwanted answers to unasked questions’. Unless INSET activities are concerned with the individual’s personal development profile, they are of very little value (Pansegrau, 1984). The individual’s right to determine a personal development programme has to be central in planning INSET, since effective analysis of needs does emerge as a principal condition of the success of INSET in the future (Routledge, 1987:162). INSET should not solely serve particular government, DES, LEAs interests but principally the *professional needs of teachers*. Mostly, as expressed in the White Paper Education: A framework for Expansion,

***‘It is necessary to strike a balance between the needs of individual teachers and those of particular schools’.***

(Thompson, 1993).

In this regard, John Dunford, general Secretary of the Secondary Head’s association (Mr Hart David), stated the need for more CPD money delegated to schools (TES (4358), January 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:10). He is concerned about getting the right balance between national development priorities, schools requirements, and individual teachers’ needs. He thinks, however, that

***‘There is a long way to go and an enormous amount of work remains to be done before the paper we have seen (1998) can be converted into something which delivers on the Government’s promise of a change in the whole way that teachers’ professional needs are viewed.***

(Hart, D, TES (4358), January 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:10)

The Green Paper is not about performance-related pay. It is about how the training and development needs of teachers, thrown up by performance management and appraisal can be met. When top-down problems are sorted out locally, INSET planners have carefully to identify the teachers’ training needs at institutional level as a key element for a successful scheme. An important question is:

**What is the ideal method in the identification of training needs?**

### 2.5.2 In-service training need's identification

In-service training for teachers has been seen as a process, which exists at three different levels of needs, namely:

- 1) the needs of individual teachers,
- 2) the needs of functional groups (departments, pastoral teams) and,
- 3) the needs of the school as a whole

(ACSTT, 1974), Hoyle (1973) and Rowntree (1974).

The partnership of schools (e.g. with HEIs, LEAs) has been considered as vital in the identification of needs and provision of INSET. In an ideal new partnership, a school's teachers should play an equal role with HE staff in deciding course content and delivery, according to their needs (and interest?). There would be mutual benefits for the practitioners (teachers), and theoreticians (tutors) from close working contacts to enjoy, as well as from the opportunity to learn from each others' expertise (Eraut, 1994). Preferentially, needs are to be identified through discussion and negotiation, so as to draw a final decision which ideally is fully accepted by the staff that will be further involved in the programme.

Individual needs are currently identified in schools by appraisal of performance. Though it may be deterrent sometimes, taken in a positive way, appraisal is 'an activity central to the effective management of the teaching/learning situation'. It is seen as a right of all teachers, something, which is done with people rather than to them. Thus it is important that both appraisee and appraiser are actively involved in the process. Rather than adding to the already considerable pressures faced by teachers, appraisal of performance aims to channel the energies of staff towards the essential rather than the superficial. Those responsible for managing the school teacher force have clear responsibility to establish, in consultation with their teachers, a policy for staff deployment and training based on a systematic assessment of every teachers' performance (Teaching Quality, DES (1983) in Jones, J, & Mathias, J (1995)).

In the UK, successive governments delayed the appraisal implementation, until Kenneth Clarke, Secretary of State for Education, through Circular 12/91 of 1991 required LEAs and governing bodies to introduce a scheme of appraisal for teachers and head teachers. It was also arranged for all teachers to complete the first year of appraisal cycle during 1994-95. The principal aim of appraisal is



***'...to enhance and maximise the educational opportunities of pupils through the professional development of teachers, thus leading to both institutional and individual growth'***

(Jones, J & Mathias, J (1995:16).

According to the 1987 Act, it is a responsibility for teachers to 'participate in arrangements for further training and professional development as a teacher'. Appraisal is welcomed as a means of professional development, while insisting *it should not* be concerned with ***measuring teacher performance***. It has to be a positive and developmental process focusing on the personal and professional needs in the context of school.

The strength of appraisal seems to lie in that staff are encouraged to identify weaknesses and problem areas. Teachers are offered opportunity for discussion and support in realising ambitions, aspirations and also in seeing practical solutions (Jones, J et al, *ibid*, pp: 17) through CPD. Methods for a formal appraisal of teachers' performance at school may include: 1) sharing experience by means of classroom's visits, observation and joint planning, 2) discussion through interviews, and 3) self-appraisal. 4) They also propose to take into account pupil outcomes in the appraisal (e.g., external examination results, standardised test scores, internal tests/examinations, National Curriculum test scores, pupil coursework and records of achievement), so as to make the procedure more integral and fair in schools, as well as 5) attending In-service courses.

The weak point of appraisal may well be its link with School-Teachers' Pay and Conditions of Employment, as it is currently (year 2000). One other problem seems to be that sometimes appraisers do not trust appraisees, therefore it is important to appoint reliable and well-trained appraisers. It is finally of utmost importance that in the process of teachers' appraisal in schools, individual needs are identified, combined with those of functional groups, and integrated with those of the whole school. Without this, the process might have no good outcomes.

On the other hand, LEAs' most commonly used approach to identification of needs are often questionnaires and interviews, as they are considered to be of some use. A bottom up (B-U) model would facilitate better the identification of needs, for LEAs and other INSET providers to make a final decision upon priorities. In this model, needs have to be blended as a whole for the programme to be effective. But, it is relevant to be aware of possible tensions arising between the needs of the individual and the institution.

Research (in the form of case studies) carried out in an inner- London area by two British researchers, i.e., Rudduck (1981), and Thompson (1993:50-53), upon 'INSET Provision, and

teachers' perception in the 80s' and 90s' was published by the British Journal of In-service Education. Rudduck (1981) looked into the factors influencing the success of short INSET courses in the 1980s. She found that there was a mis-match of aims and expectations between participants and providers of this type of INSET; a tension between teachers' needs and demands and what providers (inspectors) put forward at LEAs' level. A salient point was that teachers showed special preference for the less formal INSET courses (short ones), but that resources were mostly put (at the time) into the 'formal structure' which was defined by teachers as being of less practical value to themselves. This finding might be arguable, however. The research findings concluded by pointing out that institutions are to be convinced of the quality of the INSET provision, which might well be measured by, for instance, observing the teachers' enthusiasm generated by courses. On the other hand, Thompson's result about INSET allocation and needs tensions revealed that, interestingly, criticism of INSET in the 1990s was especially strong among secondary teachers; that a

*'...Substantial group felt that INSET allocation outside school appeared arbitrary, yet discussions with Senior Managers revealed a strong sense of awareness of the tension between the needs of the individual, the needs of the institution, particularly in terms of its development plan, and personal career/staff development'.*

(Thompson, 1993:50-53).

Senior managers wanted to support teachers in their professional development, especially when appraisal became more relevant. A second point arising from this research was that increasingly, as schools become more autonomous, they are looking at their own needs and how to address them in a more focused manner. These needs are often indicated by the Institutional Development Plan (IDEP) and emerge during its ongoing review (Thompson, *ibid.*). One other significant finding was that schools need help or outside stimulus of advisers and teacher trainers in the theoretical and research aspects of subject methods as well as in professional and educational studies (as they cannot provide those focuses). It was felt that the INSET provider needed to come from outside the individual institution with a precise, well-recognised training need being addressed during the session. Input was also found to be needed in developing the concept of action research and the reflective practitioner, an umbrella term in which every school seemed to be interested (see 2.11 below). Two fundamental questions posed by Thompson were:

**Is there an ideal form of INSET for everyone with an optimum size? Most important,**

**Is it possible to tailor INSET to both individual and group needs?**



### 2.5.3 Responsibility for INSET in schools

Traditionally, responsibility for INSET was given in schools to a counsellor who provided advice, as well as identified teachers' needs (The James Report, 1970). This person should have sufficient expertise and seniority to integrate the needs of teachers with the needs of the school. This seniority might reflect the seriousness and credibility of the programme. The identification of teachers' needs in schools involved the use of 1) reflection, 2) counselling, and 3) group's discussion.

Nowadays, training at all levels is a collective responsibility which should be shared by all (Shaw, 1992) in every school in the UK. This is contemplated in the pay and conditions document or teacher's contract, which lists training and management duties for all school's teachers. This ought to be also explicit in job descriptions as to,

- 1) reviewing from time to time teachers' methods of teaching and programming of work
- 2) participating in arrangements for their further training and professional development, and
- 3) contributing to the selection for appointment and professional development of other teachers and non teaching staff, including the induction and assessment of new probationary teachers (35(11)a).

There is, however, a named person who is, at least nominally, responsible for INSET. He/she is variously called the professional tutor, the teacher tutor, the INSET co-ordinator, etc. This responsibility is given very often to senior persons on a high allowance, or a deputy head scale. They co-ordinate all aspects of training and induction including the INSET budget, and make links with teacher training institutions (Shaw, 1992). Head teachers are, however, given the first INSET responsibility with governors who, among other functions, must ensure that appropriate structures are in place; allocate resources as well as monitoring and reviewing training regularly. They are to give induction sessions as well. Both senior and middle managers share in this responsibility, and ought to be aware of their own duties as well as their personal and professional development and that of their teams.

The increased school-based teacher training in all its phases implies that more far-reaching involvement is required, embracing a wider staff group including heads of departments, other middle managers and subject mentors (Shaw, 1992). Since schools have the new role as 'market controllers', they can provide, in theory at least, better assistance to teachers in their training than before. Their mission is to decide on the best ways to suit local needs.

Hargreaves, D, et al. (1991) refer to a growth of confidence and skills among school's teachers in all aspects of training and professional development and a growing demand for school-based

INSET. He insists that partnership of schools with others is paramount. As Shaw says, 'schools have to be aware that to achieve maximum effectiveness in school-based training, partnership with outside agencies is needed (see 2.7 below). But there are some aspects that schools cannot provide for, so input from outside providers of INSET (and advisers), advice, and partnership is central. Likewise, teachers need some advice from inspectors and advisers of LEAs in putting forward development plans that include INSET.

#### **2.5.4 Advice to schools on INSET planning**

Five professional training days were institutionalised in the UK after ERA 1988 (see also 2.6.3 below). All professional training days should be planned together, and if possible, in coherence with other INSET provision types. The 5 compulsory days should be part of the school/Institutional development plans (IDEP) along with the National Curriculum plan. This is very important, considering the advantage of 'planning'.

Planning offers a genuinely more systematic and sustained approach, a more careful selection of a limited range of priorities, better planning with the support of pre-defined resources and staff development; as well as evaluation to establish new strengths on which to build over time (Hargreaves, D. et al., 1991: 9). In planning SBI, attention has to be given to the process as well as the content. Within the process, teachers may be the receivers (and) or designers of their INSET. The latter ought to be the predominant one in schools (Altrichter, H, 1986) for effectiveness and ownership. When teachers design their own INSET, they are developing their own knowledge and their professional situation. This is the best SBI scheme. In an ideal model, nevertheless, input (and advice) from external institutions and agencies should provide a supportive framework as a basis for the teachers' efforts.

Perhaps the most important factor to be taken into account in planning INSET (SBI) is the budget. LEA's schools plan INSET with devolved moneys, which they have to administer wisely, according to development plans (if these exist). In the decade of the 1990s, for example, there were some complaints about budget management in schools. Among others, it was mentioned that the school budget devoted to ITT was being diverted to provide for advanced training for experienced teachers (INSET) (Hargreaves, 1990a). This argument, however, did not proved completely true, as schools have to be flexible and invest at their best the devolved resources from LEAs. Grant Maintained Schools (GMS) (approximately 20% in England), on the other hand, have to provide on their own for their services, to look for effectiveness, professionalism and value for money, by taking on many of the LEAs' functions, besides theirs own. Lately, both



the devolution of budgets to schools, and teachers' appraisal have apparently led to better planning of INSET.

But teachers under some strain have not had much opportunity either to learn about planning and organisation of In-service training, or to attend at times arranged by others. Nor has the quality of the experience of 'professional training days or School-based INSET (SBI)...been as good as it might have been' (Gough, R et al, 1990:13). This argument may be debatable in principle, however. The present study, for example, seems to show that teachers do feel satisfied with the SBI support as it meets their own needs (see SBI survey outcomes in Chapters 4 & 5). This is despite acknowledging that teachers have no (real) ownership of their SBI support in most of the instances. Another convincing example of SBI success is that of Northern Ireland (NI). According to the findings of a survey with teachers, part of the success of SBI in NI may be linked to good planning, the inclusion of INSET/SBI in the development plans, and above all the continuous involvement and advice by the support board (Advisers in England) to teachers(<http://www.deni.gov.uk/keyinfo/inspecti...ortsmar98/other/inspectorate-survey.htm>). The survey was carried out by the Department of Education in Northern Ireland (DENI) during 3 consecutive years (94/95-95-96-97-98) at 3 different stages. It also revealed that: 1) SBI was identified as the most popular form of support among teachers; and 2) as the most effective means of focusing on the specific circumstances and needs of the school. 3) SBI was also seen as the most effective mode for helping all staff to understand, assimilate and apply new approaches and ideas. 4) SBI support can contribute to the increased confidence and competence of the teachers, which directly reverts in motivation of pupils. 5) It was found that teachers involved in systematic SBI feel confident to continue the work and develop it further when the support/training finishes. 6) Another outcome was that they develop material to match their own/particular needs. 7)) When SBI is related to out-centre INSET, it was seen as especially productive due to direct contact with trainers. 8) Nonetheless, teachers in the survey were critical of the dominant role of the organisers, and to the focus of SBI, which concentrates (as in England and Wales) on policy development and lacks often balance with practical classroom issues. The latter may well be the result of the fact that not all schools respond the same way to advice given by the LEA Officers and/or Consultants.

In the mainland (England and Wales) the situation is not any different (see Ch. 4 & 5). Some schools do respond to the advice to make their development plans more effective. Their response to

***'...Development planning is a reflection of the culture that has come to characterise the school and the choices it has made about frameworks, roles and working together'***

(Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991:83).

But other schools cannot or do not respond as expected. Consequently, there exists a big gap between the most capable and the least effective schools. To Hargreaves et al., (ibid.), it is necessary to clarify what the problem is and then to explore ways to overcome it. The best solution suggests a partnership between schools and LEAs Officers, so as to make advice upon choices available.

In managerial terms, schools are supposed to make eight choices, namely: 1) aims, 2) partners, 3) curriculum 4) organisation, 5) management, 6) change, 7) support, and 8) ethos. INSET would broadly fall into the seventh choice, namely: support systems but it also relates to the other seven. Schools are required to give some careful thought to what the choices are about. None of the areas can be ignored, so some kind of choice is inescapable. After the choice is made the culture and management arrangements are decided, taking into account that the choices tend to be linked to one another. Each choice according to Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991) highlights the tension between development and maintenance. The choices lean either to development or maintenance although can also fall between them. Therefore, schools should select rightly in order to maintain a balance between development and maintenance. They should keep a 'mixed profile' or tend to the middle position. They should also understand that they could not innovate to the point where they could damage the *maintenance system* because the *status quo* has to be preserved in order to avoid tension with *continuity*.

At the *maintenance extreme*, insufficient support is provided internally for an innovation and little use is made of external support (parents, governors, HE, etc.). There is no policy for staff development in those schools. Teachers attend external INSET courses for their own professional development rather than to meet the school needs. These schools are involved in highly diverse INSET, so that staff are frequently absent and classes have many supply teachers.

Conversely, schools that tend to the middle position recognise their existing strengths and see them as points for growth. They are also capable of recognising their limitations and so understand the potential power of development planning to guide and support innovation. These are the schools with quality and effectiveness in teaching and learning (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991). This profile of an ideal school would opt for planning the INSET they need in a very effective way. In this position,



*‘...there is a staff development policy designed to support a limited range of innovation to meet the school’s needs. Teachers on courses are expected to import benefits back into the school to help other staff. There is an emphasis on school-based INSET and drawing other partners into the school to support innovation’*

(Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991:88).

## 2.6 PROVIDERS OF INSET

Before the Educational Reform Act 1988, LEAs and universities were the main providers of INSET in the UK. Thereafter, the Education Reform Act 1988 and subsequent legislation of delegation of budgets to schools set the onus on LEAs as the main organisations to offer training of a type and quality which schools would like to buy. Market forces are clearly at play (Shaw, 1992:52) and are a crucial matter behind LEA training. Schools have entire freedom to shop around among the products offered by their own LEA, other LEAs, HEIs and government training agencies. They can also attend the less formal/opportunistic INSET offered by national and independent subject associations, which also aim at providing INSET for individual teachers.

But the provision of INSET types is sometimes problematic due to the lack of (clear) policies. There exist tensions among LEAs, HE and teachers themselves in relation to this. Within LEAs, this is due to the different views among elected members, officers and advisers/inspectors, as well as the different objectives they may conceive for INSET/CPD. Likewise, Head teachers, deputies and senior managers might have different opinions and views upon the type of INSET to be provided in schools.

The types of INSET provision would then largely depend upon the conception by those involved in the planning and provision, and very seldom on the actual needs claimed by teachers. Generally speaking, the main providers of INSET after ERA 1988 are (to some extent) the LEAs, HEIs and the schools themselves. These institutions label the INSET as follows.

### 2.6.1 LEAs-based INSET (LBI)

There are around 171 LEAs in England. They offer the broader and cheaper INSET product on offer in the UK. This type of INSET could well be considered as partly formal/ less formal, due to its provenance. In most cases, LEAs training on any subject can be varied and cover all phases

of schooling. They offer packages, materials and personnel to be used by schools on their local professional training days, for consortia of schools, or are bought in by schools.

The training can be school-based responding to a local need and can be in school time, after work or it can take place at teachers' centres and offered as part of the regular programme. Courses at schools have to be paid for by schools. Twilight or weekend programmes are less costly but also require commitment from teachers. Training can be carried out in the LEAs' residential centres, either when the training is offered by them or by individual schools. The cost-effectiveness of programmes offered by LEAs largely depends upon previous consultation with schools and definition of priorities, which are given by schools in their development plans. Authorities can also buy the training for teachers, mentors, and Head teacher from university departments of education (UDEs), and/or private consultants, or they can provide the service themselves. The success of these packages largely depends on motivation, quality, and prior consultation to participants. In addition, LEAs can provide subject-specific advice and training, difficult for individual school departments to provide effectively, due to lack of time and resources.

The advantage seen when INSET is bought in from an LEA is that the latter is familiar with the particular situation of the school, due to the professional relationship existing between the two parties that arises from monitoring, evaluation and inspection.

### **2.6.2 University-based INSET (UBI)**

University Departments of Education (UDE) provide INSET when LEAs are not ready to do so. They frequently give accreditation opportunities for part and full-time courses to (primary and secondary) teachers by accumulation of credits to be awarded with certificate, diplomas or post-graduate degrees. Like LBI, it might be considered as a formal and less formal type of INSET with the involvement of both UDE and practitioner teachers working sometimes in groups. According to Nicholson, university training is seen as *job-related* as it focuses on individual professional development, including career development and retraining (Nicholson et al., 1976). Thus, it is a professional development enterprise (Gough, 1985 In Gough et al., 1990:14) and is adult education.

HE institutions work with schools (as training schools) by using tutors or distance learning packages for teacher training (developed by UDEs); by selling packages of INSET to schools; and/or by taught courses conferring credits leading to diplomas or higher degrees to teachers. Despite the significant role they play in teachers' education and training, criticism is always there from the part of government and particularly from politicians. Since schools have established



school-based and school-managed approaches to in-service work, HE has had to adjust to the new scenario and as Day would say some time ago, become marginalised (Day, 1989). They can no longer count on being traditional 'expert-providers'. Instead, they are progressively modifying themselves into what Gilroy and Day (1993) call '*learning support agencies*'. HEIs seem then 'to be confronted by the twin pressures of consumerism and quality assessment, which has driven a review of its activity and provision' (Glover & Law, 1996:19).

They are into the market, selling INSET to LEAs, schools and individual teachers, and mentors by means of general packages. This originates an open competition between them and LEAs, as this researcher found in the NE of England (see Ch.4). Some disadvantages attach to the LEAs whose future seems to be in doubt, given that HE might well be able to provide LEAs' role, and schools might well choose HE as providing value for money and quality (Shaw, 1992:61, Greaves, 1995).

Both institutions (e.g., LEAs and HEIs) advertise their services on a large scale in brochures, leaflets, flyer-sheets and on web sites, the HEI perhaps with more success. Two illustrations (at random) follow, e.g. the INSET department of the University of London and the University of Hertfordshire.

The web page on the Internet (<http://www.ioe.ac.uk/INSET>) (last updated in September 1999) about the INSET department in the Institute of Education, University of London, includes detailed information on the department and staff. It also mentions key contacts, courses on offer to primary and secondary teachers per term/phase (in the range of 30 to 40 per term), length, price, etc., as well as mainstream courses. The University of Hertfordshire (UH), on the other hand, broadly displays a range of success and awards conferred by the government. It has been chosen by the TTA as one of only six institutions nationally to expand its TTA funded INSET by consideration of the quality of its CPD...etc. The university's CPD web page on the Internet (<http://www.herts.ac.uk/extrel/PGP99/faculties/human/continuing.html>) provides also broad information about the university academic background. It advertises the extensive CPD programme of about 40 modules in any academic year (one fourth of the INSET in University of London) and the corresponding accreditation, and explains the partnership with Holland which allows students to carry out (part of) their studies over there if they wish. This and other modes of advertising may well make of CPD a prosperous business.

### 2.6.3 School-based INSET (SBI)

The idea that schools should take a major role in the training process in the UK is not a new one (Shaw, 1992:10). It dates from as long ago as the late 18<sup>th</sup> century. Illustrations of this style is the apprenticeship model or 'sitting with Nellie', which dates from the first days of schooling and was intended for the working classes (Wragg (1884a) In Booth, et al., 1990). The McNair's Committee, which looked into the supply, recruitment, and training of teachers in 1944, was also sponsor of the idea that 'the key to more effective teacher training was to give the practical side of preparation greater weight and greater responsibility to schools' (Wilkin 1990).

Reasons for the broad interest in more school-based INSET during the 20th century are: 1) the external factor: social, economic, and political change; 2) the internal factor: the question of the development of the reflective school (Shaw, 1992).

Whole-school programmes exist to support professional learning in those situations where there is : 1) a need for organisational consistency; and 2) where it is more cost effective to provide service training. Nonetheless, a training-day's effectiveness is arguable if it is not firmly contextualised by team and individual learning strategies. To be effective, SBI has to be interesting, a pleasant change and has to be designed with 'implementation in mind' (West-Burnham, J & O'Sullivan, F, 1998:119).

The day is only one component of an extended process that draws on what is known about individual and team-based professional learning. Specific criteria for the 'training days' may be that:

- 1) these days are demonstrably consistent with the school's mission statement and strategic and development plan priorities;
- 2) there is no alternative or better way to foster professional learning;
- 3) the session is designed to employ a range of learning strategies;
- 4) consultants are employed to work to the school's agenda rather than their own;
- 5) there are clear strategies for implementation at team and individual level;
- 6) there is a clear focus on the experience of pupils –in particular their achievement.

On the other hand, individual days or events need to be part of an overall strategy that is supportive of a school logical progression that adds value at each stage (West & O'Sullivan, 1998: 119). The argument exists that the impact of the traditionally constituted training day is profoundly constrained if the (above) criteria are not met.



SBI has mainly focused on the NC or LMS (school improvement) and its main target seems to be that of raising awareness. A model of SBI deriving from Joyce and Showers (1981) shows further stages to be taken into account in the development of competence. This involves: 1) awareness; 2) needs analysis (vary in particular schools); 3) conceptual underpinning (engagement in theory); 4) skills development (by practising); 4) application to practice (use of knowledge and skills on the job), and 5) monitoring and evaluation (Joyce and Showers, 1981).

This model seems sensible, its strength lying in that it can be used for the different managerial roles in different enterprises, though it may need different methods at different time with different emphases. A disadvantage of this method is that 'many teachers seem to be left with their awareness highly elevated 'and not much else" (Gough et al., 1990:19). Yet the model seems incomplete because it does not include an important step after evaluation, at least not explicitly, that any type of effective INSET ought to, namely, follow-up (see 2.10 below).

According to Nicholson SBI is considered as job-embedded (Nicholson et al., 1976) as its focus is (usually) *school improvement*. It is a staff development enterprise (Gough, 1985 In Gough et al., 1990:14) indeed. Along with university training, SBI is adult education, and may be more comprehensive and contextualised if it works in partnership with other providers.

## 2.7 PARTNERSHIP IN THE PROVISION OF INSET

Schools have to play a significant role in the training and development of their staffs (Shaw, 1992). They should be prepared to be 'pro-active and effective' in all phases of teacher training, at whole school, at the individual as well as in the classroom policies level. An important question is, **What can schools do by themselves and what do they need to buy in?**

The answer might well be that since individual schools possess the funding, decisions have to be made by themselves upon what type of INSET they may buy in and also upon what can provide themselves. Schools involved in teacher training of any sort ought to be in the position to clarify for themselves aspects such as:

- 1) what they can plan and provide in-house,
- 2) what can be best achieved by grouping with other schools, and
- 3) what can be bought in from institutions such as LEAs, HEIs, independent associations (e.g., Language Learning Association (ALL)).

- 4) Also they may think of government agencies, such as the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), CILT, NCET, SCAA ('Language World'. Association for Language Learning Journal, September, 1995:6) and much more, for similar ends.

Hargreaves' (1995) view is that schools are likely to buy in expertise from HE and LEAs at least. Either of these may act as stimuli to schools in articulating subject methodology and general education studies.

When decisions favour a built-in service, HEIs, LEAs, and other agencies currently delivering INSET may be contacted either by heads or by deputies who are in charge of INSET in schools. These professionals in the field can either provide the service themselves, to advise schools in whatever the circumstances are, or even to research and develop with experienced school's teachers.

LEAs are the major partners of schools in the UK, assisting them through inspection and advisory services (see 2.6.1 above). LEA (and/or private sector) advice is crucial in both, planning / organisation as well as development planning and provision of less formal INSET. Nevertheless, there has been some scepticism concerning the quality of the services they give to schools. Hansard's (in TES, 1991) research, for example, reveals that there was some suspicion about LEAs' inspections and advice at the beginning of the 1990s, as inspectors were not seen always as being sufficiently independent and may then show bias. To tackle this situation, the Education Bill of 1991 planned other inspectors (registered by HMI), who clearly competed with LEAs' inspectors (clauses 1 to 6 & schedule 2) in the (inspection and training) service. The new privatised inspectors had/still have to look at schools' involvement in all forms of training. They plan and organise INSET for schools, according to identified needs. But they never seem to get it right.

A decade later, some schools are still sceptical about being partners with their LEA, particularly concerning the advice and inspection service. Especially in 1999, LEAs' standards were matters of great concern to the extent that intervention of the private sector was inevitable in many schools. Chris Woodhead, Chief Inspector of Schools claims in the report 'The Shaky authorities named' (TES ((No 4355) of December 17, 1999: 6) that 'of 41 recently inspected (LEAs) nearly a quarter have serious problems and deficiencies' and that particularly 'the report of Southwark made dismal reading'. Estelle Morris, the Standards Minister ordered the London borough of Southwark to 'take advice from private consultants on contracting out its education services', and asked for reports on Walsall and Bristol. The report also mentions that Inspectors who went back to Southwark 12 months after its inspection found that the services had actually got worse and schools no longer trusted or respected the LEA. The threat of the private sector's intervention



also hangs over a further three LEAs after the inspections by OFSTED. LEAs with latest government intervention are, among others, Leicester, Liverpool (a case of research in this study, see Ch. 5), and the London borough of Hackney, Islington, Haringey. Manchester (another case in the present study, see Ch. 5) and Calderdale in West Yorkshire are other LEAs that might have had to accept intervention if legislation had been in place at the time that they were inspected.

Ministers have also asked for some private sector involvement in other 9 authorities that would be mentioned by the beginning of this year (2000). More recently, after the LEA's inspection, 8 schools have been identified either as failing or as having serious weaknesses. This is due apparently to a failure of LEAs to give leadership. As reported,

*'...There are schools which 'can no longer discern any useful purpose that the authority serves'*

(Hackett, Geraldine, TES (No 4355), December 17<sup>th</sup>, 1999:6).

As a result, some schools do not seem to accept inspections' failing results any longer and so have started to react against OFSTED. A case under scrutiny at the time of writing is that of London's largest secondary school (Crown Woods in Greenwich) in which MPs and the school 'launched a twin assault on the authority' (TES, (4401), Nov 3, 2000). According to the school, the 'OFSTED report was unreliable because the team saw so little of the school's work' (TES, *ibid*.pp.1). This unprecedented case may have repercussions for the Office for Standards in Education if the school takes the case to the High Court.

There is also some criticism as to Walsall's management structure for having 'two level leadership of the council which is confused and gives support to schools incoherently.

As for the budgetary planning affair, Hackett argues that

*'The LEAs typically retain 20% of the money available for education. If that money is not used effectively, it means schools are being denied money that could be useful to them'*

(Hackett, Geraldine, TES, (No 4355), December 17, 1999: 6)

The latter quotation suggests contentiously that schools would be far better if they opted out from LEAs (as Grant Maintained Schools) and managed their own affairs themselves as many do so currently. This way central government itself might have more direct control over them, the obvious implication being the already suggested weakening of the LEAs.

HEIs and schools may be another form of partnership with great potential. This association may facilitate 'mentoring' as a way of continuing professional development in education.

Broadly speaking, *mentoring* is an interactive process occurring between individuals of differing levels of experience and expertise which incorporates interpersonal or psycho-social development, career and/or educational development, and socialisation (Carmin, (1988:9) In Bush, T, et al., (1996:121). The suggestion is that 'A more experienced colleague can facilitate the professional/personal development of a new teacher or a person new to a particular stage in a career'. The effective induction of new staff, or those adjusting to new roles is regarded as an important component of the staff development role where the 'mentee is learning from the mentor's experience and the mentor's role is to encourage and nurture his or her protégé'. Mentors can pass on practical insight derived from experience and can pick up on new ideas and attitudes. They can help their proteges (be them initial or in-service) to set realistic expectations and steer them in the right direction as far as their career aspirations are concerned. It can, and should be a mutually rewarding experience (Thomson, 1993:111 In Bush, *ibid.* 122). All this may be only possible if HEIs and schools work together. The major gain would be that HEIs would help mentors understand and execute their role more thoroughly and that the former would gain from the latter's experience. Schools can also use information technology and distance learning courses to ensure adequate breadth and depth (Shaw, 1992:45). Partnership addressed in that direction, mainly with HE, may be advantageous in research terms.

Other partners in INSET would be other schools (singly or in consortia) and independent trainers and consultants. Schools working together in consortia or clusters can enjoy a number of advantages, such as economies of scale, training for mentors, trainees, peer group meetings; workshops in subject-specific areas. A cross-phase cluster of schools working together with just one HEI that offers enhancement in both ITT and INSET by sharing experience and expertise is also possible. This greatly benefits lecturers, teachers and student teachers, by for example, placing tutors in schools, as it was the case (at random) between the Polytechnic and Nottinghamshire LEA where 12 polytechnic's tutors were at school more than a decade ago (DES, 1989h). This other kind of partnership/links, certainly alleviate uncertainty of schools about the restricted role of LEAs (and their latest idea of privatisation), along with the lack of trust in the service of some of them.

In summary, greater autonomy, including teacher training in 'all its phases' is currently forced on schools, as a consequence of fears concerning LEAs and teacher training institutions' plans. Schools are to decide WHAT, WHEN HOW, by WHOM INSET is provided, as there is a broad miscellany of INSET types to choose from (see 2.8 below). It is necessary that schools bear in



mind that INSET would be very insignificant if it was reduced just to on the job's experience without the help of researchers and professionals. Thus schools may buy extra staff in addition to the necessary expertise from HEI (departments and colleges of education) as well as from local advisers and inspectors of LEAs, or from private/external consultants.

Partnership is important to ease the planning, co-ordination and provision of both external and on-site INSET through direct consultation, questionnaires, interviews, inspection as well as direct enquiry from individual or in consortia schools. It may also facilitate communication, and help clarify the role definition between school and HEIs tutors in training; between tutors and teachers, and mentors and trainees in relation to programmes and contents. Partnership, finally, may profitably decide the type of INSET provision that teachers are provided with throughout their professional live.

## 2.8. TYPES OF INSET

There is neither an exact definition for the INSET typologies, nor a clear policy as to the types of INSET to be provided to teachers in the UK, except SBI (see SBI in 2.6.3 above). The underlying reasons for this situation may partly lie on the shift of INSET to schools.

If INSET is taken as synonymous with Staff Development (SD), as used to be the case, the typology checklist divides it into: introduction; subject knowledge; teaching development; management development; team development; relationship-training; and pastoral care (Williams, G, 1982:5). This classification might be disputed, as one could think that these might rather be the main areas of focus, rather than the types of SD. An inference from the literature is instead that the type of INSET is largely determined by the provider, e.g., by the educational institution (see 2.6 above), organism, training agency, or subject association, along with the award it offers, and the manner in which it is provided. Accordingly, some typologies would be

- 1) **formal** (e.g., university-based) as the courses are award bearing and provided in a formal environment with a formal programme.
- 2) **less-formal** (e.g. LEA's) where there may be a programme with little/no continuity that may not necessarily lead to an award, and is imparted in a less formal environment. Whilst some other activities would fall within a third category, namely:

- 3) **opportunistic** (e.g., subject associations, LEAs, SBI; etc) short-term activities in the form of seminars, conferences, speeches, one-legged SD conferences (Williams, 1982), etc. given in a non formal/informal environment.

There is not always a clear demarcation between the less formal and opportunistic type, however. Though this classification may overlap with that made by Williams (1982) for SD (in curriculum terms), one could claim that it fulfils all INSET kinds, as it covers all the elements of award, environment, manner, and provision. Importantly, the type of INSET adopted provides the clients with different kinds of focuses.

## 2.9 FOCUS OF INSET

Blackburn and Moisan (1986) argue that INSET ought to be taken by planners as a process rather than a random 'event' with no continuity. Ideally, it ought to focus on subject matter, methodology, school management, etc., so as to blend the needs of individuals, teams (departments, pastoral teams), and the school as a whole.

In practice, it appears as if the foci of CPD/INSET were prescribed by the political party in power. They actually make the decisions on national priorities. Their policies are implemented/enforced by those in charge of the planning and provision of the training, e.g., the LEAs, training agencies (e.g. TTA), private consultants, and to a minor extent the universities.

In schools, as mentioned before, INSET (SBI) (see also 2.8 on Types of INSET) is in the hands of senior and middle managers. These, in consultation with the teachers, ought to choose the type and (as a result) the focuses of INSET based on the audit of needs and the IDEPs. It depends on them to have or not the right provision and content of the SBI training. They may follow, in practice, government prescriptions and thus focus the INSET on the needs of the institutions rather than the individuals'. Some may combine both of them in the agenda of the 5 compulsory days training.

Middle managers have a great influence on the provision of INSET in schools. In institutions where management arrangements are defective, typical middle managers could well constitute a constraint in meeting actual (staff/teachers') needs; they could manipulate the situation and take arbitrary decisions on the provision of INSET without consulting their personnel (adequately). This is a characteristic of personality well known in management as *lower affiliation*. In a 'Bray's



Management Progress Study', Howard (1989) comments on middle management and careers progress. Findings showed that when the subjects reached middle management positions, they acquired more knowledge but seemed to be less interested in people (*lower affiliation*). They, especially middle-aged managers, seem also more difficult to control. Their expectations and attitudes to the companies/institutions seem to decline; they have a strong drop in interpersonal ability (*higher aggression*) and are more prone to engage in verbal combat if provoked (Howard, Ann. 'Career development and Assessment Centre Evaluation' a chapter In Wilson, J et al., 1989:74-86). Most importantly, perhaps, with less interest in relating to, or pleasing others, these middle managers are probably less motivated to lead, and persuade people (Howard, A. In Wilson, J et al., 1989: 80). As a result, they might make sometimes unilateral and abrupt decisions. Although this study was done with industry, Howard is of the opinion that findings apply to educational institutions as well (e.g. schools).

It might be argued then that INSET being in the hands of senior and middle managers might not always guarantee the right type and focus of INSET provision in schools. Perhaps a more significant involvement of teachers and IDEPs in the planning process would make teachers feel commitment to their own CPD, and above all, would give them a sense of ownership not of imposition or enforcement of the training.

After ERA 1988, the foci of the activities falling into the category of INSET/CPD have been broadly oriented to the NC, school effectiveness and improvement with a little bit of other focuses. Also, for the year 2000 and the years to come, a shift has been announced in the foci of INSET/CPD for secondary teachers. A draft consultation document on CPD issued before Christmas 1999 recommends that

*'The focus of in-service training should be on the quality of teaching in the classroom'.*

(Thornton, K, TES ((No.4358), 2000:10)

Sceptical Teachers Unions consider that little progress has been made since the Government's first outlined plans for improving professional development in the Green Paper on teachers' pay in December 1998 (Thornton, K, *ibid.*). They think that if new performance-management systems identify new training objectives for teachers, then these must be fully resourced.

England particularly has several projects for INSET in the year 2000 and beyond. Moving from a *policy and management development* focus, to a *more subject-oriented one*, the new target is to train teachers in (some of) their initial training fields of study. Lately, since the New Labour

party has been in power, numeracy and literacy have taken over the foci of the training of teachers. The available funding should be targeted mainly at providing training for teachers, including up to 5 days of release time for all primary and special schools...to raise achievement (The Numeracy Task Force, 1998:3). The New Labour agreement greeted the 21<sup>st</sup> century by shifting its focus from primary to secondary education (as Moran did at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century). David Blunkett's (Secretary of State for Education and Employment) slogan to teaching is 'New century, new test, new targets' (as reported by educational reporter N. Barnard (TES (4358), January 7th, 2000: 10). The Numeracy plan leads to the fulfilment of the remit David Blunkett gave of ensuring that 75% of 11 year olds achieve level 4 or better by 2002 (Reynolds, D, 1998). Labour's new target is to tackle 'the wholly unacceptable lack of progress at the end of primary school from 11 to 14' in numeracy and literacy. To do this, 5 measures are being introduced: 1) new tests for 12 years old (optional from 2001); 2) statutory targets for 14 years old; 3) extension of the numeracy and literacy strategies into secondary schools; and 4) doubling the number of summer schools for children who are going to get into secondary school. 5) The fifth measure is the

*'Training for teachers to improve their subject knowledge and to make lessons more inspiring'.*

(Blunkett, D. TES (No 4358), January 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:3)

Also, training has been announced for Information and Communication Technology (ICT) teachers. The idea was launched that probably the best way to train teachers in computers is for them to have their own laptop. To that, Lord Stevenson (TES, (No 4358), January 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:10) replied sarcastically 'I support the Government making it possible for more and more teachers 'to buy their own computer'. A £230 million lottery-funded programme to train teachers in the use of computers was welcomed because, as Lord Stevenson (ibid.) said, this kind of training will 'make a significant impact on the profession', and hopefully, the money will be spent effectively. The programme is part of a strategy to achieve the European Commission's target date of 2003 to reach 'digital literacy' for all pupils leaving school. The '...growing split between rich and poor in computer technology cannot be ignored' (Lord Stevenson (2000) – a report 'Beware the digital divide's report' In TES (No 4358), January 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:10)) any longer. A network of public learning centres equipped with computers was announced by the government to help the poorest and less confident in ICT. How effective this idea will be, is another issue.

Finally, it has to be pointed out that partnership of schools with external institutions and industry is important to ensure diversity in the focus of INSET. All this, however, would be meaningless



without a thorough procedure of INSET that involves evaluation and follow-up of the activities under that label.

## 2.10. EVALUATION AND FOLLOW UP FOR INSET

There is some literature available concerning evaluation of INSET but very little upon follow-up in the UK. This appears to derive from a lack of policy and coherence to include these two steps in the planning procedures of INSET by some providers. This is despite efforts made by many towards a policy: the need for evaluation, a 'summative evaluation' (Scriven, 1967), leading to a description of the worth of an in-service exercise; and a 'formative evaluation'. In the United States, Troyer and Pace (1944) concluded a while ago that in each instance the importance of genuinely democratic procedures was evident to ensure that evaluation respected the security, individuality and status of the teachers. They considered that evaluation should be an activity teachers did with others, rather than something others did to teachers...for great value results to the teachers involved, in enabling them to judge the relevance of in-service activities to the advancement of their professional effectiveness. This principle surely applies to the UK as well.

The issue of evaluation of INSET in the UK dates from six decades ago. Lord Boyle, Lord James, and many others who had to do/studied teachers' education and INSET have pleaded for the inclusion of evaluation in the INSET process. Lord Boyle already expressed the dissatisfaction with the situation of INSET in the 1970s. The provision seemed to be relatively small...it related to a limited number of fashionable subjects... and, as he expressed

*'...surprisingly little is known about the effectiveness of courses, and it is important that an extension in their number should be accompanied by a far greater effort at evaluation'*

(Lord Boyle, E, 1972)

The goal was clear enough: all teacher training, initial and in-service was ultimately seeking to improve the quality of education provided for the children in the schools (Henderson, 1978:42). Henderson (ibid.) agrees with the James Report in that there was an urgent need for assessing INSET.

The theory mentions that 3 steps ought to be given during the evaluation procedure: 1) the activity itself; 2) the outcome of the activity; 3) the subsequent events or activities. In practice, this may or not happen. Relevant questions such as: *WHAT* training itself can/not achieve,

*WHICH* training *STRATEGIES* are effective and which are not, and *WHICH* training *METHODS* are more effective to attain specific outcomes ought to be answered. Thus, the need for evaluation of the INSET imparted. Hoyle and Taylor (1973) also discussed the need for evaluation dealing with expansion, while Burton (1974) wanted to find out the effect of in-service training in the classroom after a lapse of time. The prediction that 'the process cannot be easy...evaluation will continue to rest on incomplete knowledge, imprecise measurements and inadequate experience' (Stake, 1970) appears to have come true.

Remaining questions emerging were:

### **HOW to assess INSET, and BY WHICH means?**

Interesting schemes/frameworks in the planning and revision of INSET followed, for example, those of Harrow (1985), Blackburn et al., (1986), Shaw (1992), etc., some more complete and sensible than others.

The procedure for INSET in professional development includes the duty in each school of a senior member of staff to co-ordinate professional development policy and provision; a staff-generated method of needs analysis and needs review; and the establishment of clear priorities for future action. With coherent co-ordination their priorities and arrangements for implementation, follow up, and review, should be fed to a suitable borough advisory committee on INSET. School senior staff and middle management as well as team leaders should be proactive in the implementation of INSET including evaluation and follow-up. Team leaders along with the managers can include all kinds of training in their agenda so as to ensure that expectations are being met, and build on discussion after INSET occurs. Little of this seems to happen in reality, perhaps reflecting a low level of importance attached to the programmes provided (Shaw, 1992).

In the 1970s, for example, Advisory Committee on the Supply of Teacher Training's (ACSTT) paper proposed a scheme that excluded the planning procedure from the process of getting an effective INSET, but included follow-up. The steps were basically

- 1) identifying needs (by discussion and negotiation)
- 2) deciding how to implement the general programme;
- 3) evaluating the programme, and
- 4) following up the ideas gained

(ACSTT paper, 1978: 433, 184: para: 52-57).



The means of identifying, practising, determining and evaluating INSET has to be formal, structural and elaborated (Baker, 1986: 8-11). It is indispensable to know firstly: HOW INSET is considered EFFECTIVE. One of the five conditions for the effectiveness of INSET is that all teachers are involved in the process of identifying their own and their colleagues INSET needs. It has to be a team-decision rather than an imposed package decided by others.

A more practical method which is feasible to be used in the evaluation and follow up of INSET may be the practice of classroom observation. Nonetheless, given the inherent difficulty in evaluating outcomes in direct ways (e.g., observation) there exists, in practice, the need to rely on indirect instruments (e.g.) post-INSET questionnaires.

To Easen, et al (1989 1985), change is the clue for assessing INSET effectiveness, provided that it is not merely a question of learning new skills, but rather a matter of finding meaning and satisfaction in new ways of doing things. Assessing the effectiveness of INSET, in terms of changes in practice in the increasingly effective schools seems to be a question recognised by many providers as central to their 'raison d'être' (Thompson, 1993:50). Yet, it seems that very few try to quantify the effectiveness of the teaching and learning processes offered between trainers and trainees as adult professionals.

The evaluation of INSET could be done also through self-review. Schools should have formal structures for evaluating the success of their training policies at all levels. The self-review is paramount for school development, due to the fact that there can be no development without *reflection on practice* (Shaw, 1992: 65-66). This applies both to the school and the teams within it as an essential part of the school development planning cycle. The structure, which provides that reflection and enhancement of school, team, and individual's performance consists of:

- 1) planning for school development,
- 2) audits of schools training needs,
- 3) appraisal meetings
- 4) performance indicators

(Shaw, 1992: 65-66)

As observed, many schemes coincide in principle, some are just an emulation of others with different wording. One of the most practical and complete, nevertheless, seems to be that of Blackburn & Moisan (1986) (see 6.1 below, Ch.6). They propose that INSET should be seen as a process rather than as an event, a process of:

- 1) needs identification,
- 2) planning,
- 3) delivery,
- 4) evaluation, and
- 5) follow up with 'teachers at its heart'

(Blackburn & Moisan, 1986: 35,36).

In more depth, two studies, by Cane (1969) and Thompson (1993) closely illustrate the issues of evaluation and follow-up. These authors have been chosen with the view to contrast two different stages in the history of INSET (e.g., during the 1960s, and 1990s).

Cane carried out a survey looking into the effectiveness of INSET between three different counties in the UK during the middle 1960s. Controversially, findings showed that only half of secondary teachers would be able to put into practice the instruction they had received through INSET. Similarly, it was emphasised that there was little opportunity to follow up training (Cane, 1969: 68,9) due, according to the respondents of the survey, to the fact that there were difficulties in terms of examination requirements in schools, equipment, as well as disruption of colleagues' timetables. Interestingly, Head teachers were more enthusiastic than teachers on the possibilities for following up training. They all, apparently, would encourage teachers in their return from one-year or one-term courses to develop and change their teaching by providing them with the necessary tools. In that study, personal testimonies were given about long-term effect training. A chief follow-up activity for any training received was simple discussion among staff; reflection upon teachers' thought, about new methods, how good they were, whether they would keep the old methods and introduce the new ones gradually.

Additionally, visits were paid to other school classes as part of the follow-up procedure. Accounts were given about courses attended; and the work done by teachers was discussed with others as well. Negatively, it was observed that sometimes a long lapse between requisitioning of instruments, materials, made that the inspiration of the course and impact diminished. Follow-up was inevitably inhibited by inadequate staffing. A difficulty to address was the delay in its benefits, given that, as is well known, the tendency of INSET is to create an attitude of condemnation of all traditional approaches.

On the other hand, Thompson found that in the 1990s: 1) many teachers were very critical about any kind of INSET, particularly that held in school time, during the professional training days. 2) Teachers' opinions were divided upon the twilight sessions. Some expressed the view that twilight INSET is ineffective because participants are tired after a long work day, while others' view was that training was more rigorous and focused, due to the short time allocated, thus, 'there was no time wasting'. The opinion of teachers taking award- bearing courses greatly



differed from the latter comment. 3) A Middle Manager's view (represented by a female teacher) was that INSET away from the work place seemed particularly useful. She thought that a weekend away from the institution with colleagues or other fellows addressing the same issues gave opportunities for in-depth solutions to particular questions and difficulties that were not possible in other circumstances. Besides, the opportunity to stand back from the normal workplace enabled the teachers to actually engage in new teaching techniques and strategies; therefore, more could be achieved in a short time (Thompson, 1993:51). 4) However, in this research, a general sense of powerlessness was detected among teachers, despite Local Financial Management (LFM). Institutional Development Plans (IDEPs) for these seem to,

*'...put the destiny of particular institutions into the hands of those who work in them. One is bound to ask whether this is a true reflection of how INSET and staff development programmes happen in schools, in which case there are implications for school management in the allocation of resources for INSET'.*

(Thompson, 1993: 50-51).

In secondary schools there was no/less follow-up to INSET and perhaps less impact of the training of one teacher on the work and interest of other teachers than in primary schools. This might be argued to happen because of the difference in curriculum between primary and secondary schools and the difficulties inherent to it. The former is more focused on general subjects, while the latter on specialised ones. According to the outcomes, no formula has been encountered by planners of education to tackle one of the major problems in teachers' education: *a lack of policies for INSET* in the UK (see 2.4 above). Thompson's findings also concluded that institutions should know that the quality of INSET provision lies in the practicality of outcomes, along with the enthusiasm that INSET generates in teachers. An imminent question is

### **What actually happens after training takes place ?**

It seems that institutions do not seriously afford an evaluation of training courses/activities. These ought to allow individuals and teams to review their own progress regularly as part of the planning cycle; use performance indicators to assess their own progress and to measure the success of training policies. The management issues arising from the assessment of INSET are principally: one, identifying where the expertise is, school ethos and communication, development planning, whole-school policies; and two, the allocation of responsibilities. Likewise, common difficulties encountered currently for assessment and follow up of INSET in secondary schools, just as the 1960s (see Cane, 1968) and the 1990s (see Thompson, 1993) seem to be: 1) examination requirements; 2) timetables; 3) disruption of colleagues; 4) expense of equipment, etc., and 5) lack of inclusion in the planning process.

Simple but effective actions should be taken by schools seeking to make INSET more effective in practice. Teachers might well improvise when problems like the above mentioned occur. They ought to be prepared to tackle the feasible constraints arising in a follow up activity, i.e. being patient in the delay of the benefits of training. Even more, they should not reject traditional approaches because the

*‘INSET aim is not to change abruptly but systematically the methods or techniques which are not leading to good outcomes’.*

(Cane, 1969)

In short, it appears that INSET has had little or no follow-up support to use the ideas learnt in the INSET (Fullan, 1982: 272). Possibly, many of the INSET experiences have failed to be evaluated and followed up (see evidence in this study in Ch. 4 & 5), given that they do tend to be ‘on the one shot’ type. Therefore, the heads’ role in INSET is determinant because evidence has shown that the effectiveness and follow-up of INSET in secondary schools depends particularly on the leadership of the head, and the school atmosphere. In turn, it should be a rule of thumb that the providers (e.g., the LEAs, HEIs, etc.) decide when INSET is/is not effective by assessing/evaluating and following up it. The INSET activity and the trainer are often evaluated but that is not the case with the trainee (see Ideal model of INSET in 6.1.2, Ch.6)

INSET has had to overcome financial problems in the form of fewer secondments, insufficient funds, LEAs shortage of budget (Greaves, 1995:16), etc. Although for many those changes have been negative, for others these have been advantageous. Teachers have, for example, 1) carried out action and self-reflection with good outcomes. 2) The individual inquiry has increased (Russell and Munby, 1992) mainly that related to the classroom, leading to practical outcomes (Westgate In Peck & Westgate: 1994:74). 3) The teachers’ inquiries have played a meaningful role in the acquisition of funds for INSET because schools consider them more interesting and practical than theoretical traditional courses. 4) Schools have more alternatives to adopt or adapt in order to suit their needs for their training role. When it is done, the new objectives need new methods (Peck, In Peck & Westgate, *ibid.* p. 72). Most importantly, reflection on INSET already delivered has a prime role in propitiating and making assessment and follow-up a reality. Therefore, reflection about INSET ought to be increasingly encouraged at institutional, team and individual levels as one of the approaches after INSET occurs.

The UK has turned back to ideas of action research and the reflective school approach with some success.



## 2.11 ACTION RESEARCH (AR)

AR is generally addressed from two different angles in this study, one, as a method of research involving practitioners (with some arguments against); the other, as a vehicle/variant of ways by which CPD can be achieved. This section will contemplate both views, but will concentrate especially on the latter, given its importance in the application of an emerging new mode of INSET (see 6.1.2 ) in this study. The model proposes AR as one of the methods and forms of delivering CPD in Colombia (see 7.7).

### 2.11.1 ACTION RESEARCH AS A RESEARCH METHOD

'Teachers must be determined to be teachers and researchers at the same time', Peek (1994). From this viewpoint, AR is addressed both as a method of research and also as an alternative 'in reaction to failing teaching methods' (Elliot 1993), and as a defence against the monotony of teaching' (Ruddock, 1985). It is meant to reconcile research with practice (Elliot, 1993). AR is claimed to be the research method of preference (Altrichter, (1993) In Schratz (1993:40)) wherever a social practice is the focus of research activity. It is claimed to be preferred 'to positivistic research which treats social practice as functions to determine systems, and to purely interpretative approaches which treats practices as cultural historical products' (Carr and Kemmis, 1986:165).

In research, AR has been defined as 'the study of a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it' (Elliot, 1981:1). When action research is undertaken, some methods have to be used for the purpose of data collection. All depends upon the kind of research undertaken as well as its purpose. In education, it is possible to take advantage of certain methods, among others: e.g., 1) diary keeping; 2) audio-cassette recordings; 3) peer-classroom observation (Peck & Westgate, 1994:74). When teachers look for techniques to be used in AR, it is crucial that they bear in mind its purposes in education, e.g.:

- 1) to improve the area of teaching;
- 2) to give support and constructive view to the problem from outside.
- 3) to provide teachers with non-judgmental but constructive review of performance; and finally,
- 4) to define problems and remedies although it would not provide ready-made solutions.

Naturally, however, the main purpose of any technique will be to help those who are directly concerned with a situation under research (teachers and students in education). This is to

articulate, validate and develop their views and also to design action in order to improve the situation they are living in.

When teachers involve themselves in research, they can become aware of aspects of classroom life that need further illumination. In so doing, feasible difficulties might well be: 1) practical difficulties: related with the unavailability of time, costs and equipment; 2) affinity difficulties: having to do with difficulties in useful data collection from friends, from people higher up in the administrative hierarchy. The researcher's personality and history in the work setting might well become an obstacle for the purpose of data collecting when it is negative; 3) role difficulties: The teaching process needs both involvement and active manipulation of policy and resources for the provision of a better learning. Meanwhile, research necessitates some objectivity, a difficult task considering the pressure of school life on teachers. Even though the practical and affinity difficulties are real, and become more acute in teachers' action research, the role difficulties may be overcome. Other problems such as seeing and formulating a problem worth investigating may cause a bias given that

*'...The every day eyes of teachers have two weaknesses: because of the dominance of habit and routine, teachers are only selectively attentive to the phenomena of their classrooms. In a sense they are constantly reconstructing the world they are familiar with in order to maintain, regularities and routines. Secondly, because of their busyness, their eyes tend only to transcribe the surface realities of classroom interaction's detachment. Thus, the researcher ought to propitiate a reconciliation of these competing expectations...'*

(Ruddock, 1985:125).

Apart from the habits and routine problems, teachers are so busy and things happen so quickly, that it is sometimes hard for them to realise what is going on around. Some of them are not trained to see, and the instruments available to give information about what they see may be sometimes scarce or inadequate (Good and Brophy, 1984). Therefore, drawing on the findings of research, the 'seminal problem in improving teaching may be perceptual in nature, so that the key for changing behaviours might lie in 'helping teachers to see behaviour, see what they themselves and others are doing' (Medly, 1969 in Good & Brophy, 1984:42). On the other hand, when action research is undertaken as a team's work involving outsiders and people affected by the research in the institution object of research, it is feasible to solve any particular problem arising.

In data analysis, AR is better taken as a challenge to consider the relationship of strategic and tactical questions within a broader research endeavour. This involves a series of decisions to be taken before and after data collection and analysis, which in future will shape the research results



and their relevance to the social field under investigation (Altricher, 1993). Some inevitable questions would be:

- 1) What are the quality features of action research?
- 2) How can they be communicated in an understandable way to practitioners?
- 3) What is the impact of educational research on classroom teaching?

(Peeke, 1994).

## **The schools and Action Research**

Ruddock (1985) suggests that a stronger link between schools and research institutions might help to reduce the gap between practitioners and university researchers. Institutions and schools should be brought closer together in partnership, similar to that between teacher training institutions and schools. This would provide teachers with time, resources and a conducive environment to act as researchers. Ideally teacher-researchers ought to be released from their role as teachers to have a temporary time for reflection in order to become effective (Peeke, 1994), and fulfil their needs as researchers. Given the need to refine processes and procedures to become even more effective, it is essential to give teachers time to think and talk about their work and methods for constant improvement (Deming, 1986). As Ruddock puts it

*‘Not to examine one’s practice is irresponsible. To regard teaching as an experiment and to monitor one’s performance is a responsible professional act’*

(Ruddock, 1985)

Nonetheless, the reluctance of school administrators to release teachers for a considerable length of time may well jeopardise the whole movement of teacher-based-action research thus conceived.

## **Teachers in Action Research**

As long ago as 1976, based on the Ford Project which promoted reflecting teaching, Elliot’s opinion was that

*‘The more able teachers are at self-monitoring their classroom practice, the more likely they are to bring about fundamental changes in it’.*

(Elliot, 1976)

Many arguments support the use of AR for educational investigations. Helping teachers to become competent critics and to develop their own skills in research seems to contribute largely

to what has been called by Ruddock (1985) the demytification of research within the educational system.

In using AR, teachers have to be systematic and critical in their lessons or their colleagues, in order to improve classroom practice. AR can increase the knowledge and understanding of teachers in such a way that they are able to respond to the needs of their pupils (Nixon, 1981:6). It can help to modify and even elaborate theories of teaching and learning, since it is a self-evaluation process for curriculum monitoring (Roberts, 1987). It can also help teachers to see behind what is taken for granted in every day practice and save teaching from the flattening effect of habit.

When the teachers (researchers) are familiar with the classroom, taken as setting for research purposes, they better understand the psychological, social and communicational factors that make the subculture of the class, and that may be inaccessible to an outsider investigator (Walker and Adelman, 1986). Despite difficulties, the intimacy with the class facilitates the teachers' role as researchers, because, although those problems are real, they are not certainly insuperable. Teachers' role as researcher is just an extension of that of evaluators but in this case of their classroom practice and its effectiveness. The main barriers for teachers wishing to assume the role of researchers studying their own teaching in order to improve it are psychological and social (Stenhouse, 1975:152). Indeed, the climate in which teachers work, normally offers little or no support to those who undertake their own examination of professional performance.

In sum, AR is a methodology well suited to small-scale education research and one which ensures that policy is informed by realities, that is to say, by what actually happens in schools, and it is more relevant to education than other methods (Lomax, P, 1990) of research. As a result, it has been taken as a form of CPD as well.

### **2.11.2 ACTION RESEARCH AS CPD**

In the education of teachers, action research dates back to Corey (1953) who defined it as

*'The process by which practitioners attempt to study their problems scientifically in order to guide, correct, and evaluate their decisions and actions'*

(Corey, 1953:6).

Ever since, many researchers and teachers have been inspired and developed the skills to use it as a tool to self-development mostly in the UK and Australia. In the UK, this field has 'blossomed



in schools and colleges nation-wide creating a powerful interface between Research and Practice' (Elliot, 1993).

This movement is the result of changes that have been implemented in education. It is a way by which teachers understand and improve their classroom practice (Bassey: 1994, In Calderhead, 1994: 64). AR is seen as a form of teacher professional development, where teachers have to become researchers of their own action, provided certain conditions are given, e.g. time, and resources. As Carr points out,

*'Professional development requires teachers to be provided with opportunities and resources to study their own practice through systematic reflection and research'.*

(Carr, 1989b: 7).

Teachers are seen as performing by intuition, and so, not having time to devote to the level of education, research and curriculum development that is expected of lecturers (Shaw, 1992). They cannot often afford to reflect on their craft and move forward in a systematic way. Thus according to Shaw (ibid.) schools through Head teachers and team leaders should propitiate encouragement and time for teachers to reflect on their daily teaching task. One of the salient fields to be explored in school-based forms of INSET is that of action research, as proposed in section 7.7, in Ch.7 below).

AR is described as an intervention in our own practice intended to bring about improvement. The intervention is research-based because it involves discipline enquiry. 'The improvement encompasses our current practice, our understanding of it and the contexts in which it happens' (Kemmis, 1985 In Lomax, P, 1990:11). It starts clarifying our values in the area in which we wish to bring about improvement. AR is taken mostly as the most effective research-base for facilitating staff-development (Lomax, P 1990:10). The process starts small with a single teacher focusing on his/her own practice, and gains momentum throughout the involvement of collaborators. Then, it grows when teachers reflect on their participation and shared ownership of practice, resulting (perhaps) in the formation of a self-critical community of teachers, or of extended professionals (Kemmis, and McTaggart, 1981 In Harvard and Hodgkinson, 1994). But to carry out AR, reflective schools are paramount.

## **Reflection and Reflective Schools**

As long ago as in 1975, Stenhouse argued that teaching requires...wide-ranging professional competence drawing on a combination of experience, understanding and principles of

providence, as well as specific skills. For him, this apprenticeship system could actually narrow competencies, since it emphasises performance and classroom relationship but ignores critical thinking, theory and the wider context. Therefore, educating teachers ideally ought to have dual goals, e.g. to

- 1) enhance the personal, professional growth of the teachers themselves and
- 2) indirectly that of the learners they work with.

Stenhouse (1975).

In the early 90s, British school teachers should have been able to change their approach to the job they did in response to the National Curriculum and devolved local management of schools (LMS)(Harvard and Hodkinson, 1994). This change originated from the balance that ought to exist between society changes and curriculum changes. There have been pressures from Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) to change teacher training into an NVQ type competence-based pattern. This model advocates that 'adequate performance' can only take place if this is underpinned by the necessary knowledge, understanding, and skills; that the performance on the job is the only factor to be assessed, with little/no importance of *where* or *how* that performance was learned. Teachers are seen then as 'technicians rather than professionals' (Solomon, 1987 In Harvard & Hodkinson, 1994).

In contrast, the approach of reflective teachers' education focuses on the criterion of a proactive profession, where teachers are empowered to act for and to think for themselves. This empowerment would have 3 interrelated elements:

- 1) personal autonomy: ability to think critically for oneself
- 2) personal competence: ability to do things for oneself and to be enterprising
- 3) community ability: to work with and empathise with others

(Hodkinson, 1989, 1991)

There should be a balance between autonomy, competence and community ability so as to keep the system going. If the elements are not discrete (Harvard and Hodkinson, 1994), that is, if one exceeds the others, teaching may not be effective, as the complex interactions between them are crucial to success.



Most of the current initiatives relating AR and reflection have come from UDEs, LEAs and training institutions so as to assist the schools in the theoretical as well as the practical parts they may need.

The reflective approach is taught in many HEIs and its focus is largely teacher initiated and directed. It involves teachers observing themselves, collecting data about their own classrooms and their roles within them, as a base for self-evaluation and hence, professional development (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Universities have taken this focus on INSET very seriously, as they are the entities in charge of forming critical and reflective minds, in contrast to what the government's policies intend to do, that is, making of teachers simple deliverers of the National Curriculum. Many schools, in turn, have decided that all teachers' training stages should be characterised by whole school communication and reflection on the required systems and philosophy, so as to succeed in their new role as providers of teacher training. Schools are aware that teacher training does not end with the award of NQTs (New Qualified Teacher Status, currently QTS) but continues throughout the practitioners' career (Shaw, 1992: 28). To meet this, schools have to encourage and support their staffs into the reflective practice in the classroom, and for the school as a whole to get to be an effective school. School departments may learn from each other and share experiences, problems, and difficulties, to reflect in their own practice. But

**What is the origin of the reflective teaching approach and how does it work?**

## **The Reflective Teaching Approach**

Recent researchers have claimed that teachers bring to the classroom their values, beliefs and experiences, which influence everything they do. They ought to be made aware of their existing belief and value systems -schema- through critical reflection on their performance and how they view themselves. This new conception of teachers and teaching education gave birth to the *reflective teaching approach*. Teachers as reflective practitioners ought to develop an understanding of the structures that mediate them (Desforges, C, 1990). Hence, the growth of professional knowledge and teacher competence resides in the schemas and how these are selected and applied in practice (Berliner, 1990; Clark and Peterson, 1986, In Harvard & Hodkinson, 1994). A question is

**How teachers develop the disposition and ability to reflect critically?**

This development seems to come from 'participating in critical reflection, e.g., in partnership with a tutor or mentor' (Fenstermacher, 1990, McNamara, 1990). Critical reflection is often most effective when it is done in the form of a collaborative, team practice (Harvard and Hodkinson, 1994), if possible with people with more experience. The latter seems to corroborate the importance of partnership between HEI trainers, LEA officers, and schools teaching staff.

Russell and Munby (1992) assert that 'to take teaching seriously is, at least in part, to seek new ways of bringing together the practice of teaching and research of teaching' (Russell and Munby, 1992:1). Reflective practice, therefore, first of all attempts an integration of theory with practice of teaching. But to do that, *research* is crucial, it is an intermediate way between the other two. Harvard & Hodkinson (1994: 179) see reflective practice as a form of reflective inquiry that is central to the epistemology of practice advanced by Schon (1983, 1987) which slogan is 'Knowledge and reflection in-action'.

Schon refers to knowledge as the Professional Knowledge, that knowledge which leads to action. He looks at how professionals in different fields reflect on their current practice, and labels them as reflective practitioners. Nevertheless, he differentiates between reflection *in* action and reflection *on* action. For reflection *in-action* he means what happens when strange and novel situations are encountered. This also refers to

*'teachers reflecting on their classroom practice whilst actually engaged in the lesson itself, seeing a classroom situation in a new light'*

(Schon, 1983. In Peck & Westgate, 1994:4)

Reflection in action is then a manner of enquiry by which *knowing* and *doing*, are inseparable. This takes for granted common sense. Views implicit in action are questioned, examined, and redefined. It is 'a process of reflection on knowledge-in-action' (Ackland, 1994 In Harvard & Hodkinson, 1994:179). Reflection *on* action refers to teachers reflecting on their teaching after the lesson has finished. This is, as Schon (ibid.) says, deliberate and systematic and can occur somewhere. Although both are important, it is the reflective practitioner's ability, who, in reflecting in action puts it at the very heart of the expertise.

In practice, despite the broad covering of UDEs, and LEAs about reflective practice as well as the common efforts in primary and secondary schools, the term (reflective practice) still causes fear and discomfort among some teachers. Westgate (1995), who is writing specifically on MFLs, is of the view that the term reflective practice ought to be demystified. It can involve



*‘Reflective stages in any teaching, i.e. previous planning, subsequent informal conversations, or more formal evaluations’.*

(Westgate, 1995)

Westgate adds that teachers have long been invited to reflect routinely and creatively upon their teaching; that with the National Curriculum revision, appraisal, etc., this approach is appropriate and significant not only to be valued but also to be acted on. Kyriacou (1991) also refers to INSET courses planned for experienced teachers as being designed to encourage reflective teaching. This requires from teachers to monitor and evaluate some aspects of their current classroom practice, by involving different methods of data collection (e.g. feed back from students, audio taping a lesson, peer observation, etc.). For him, a particular feature of the current INSET courses encouraging reflecting teaching is that the method of teachers sharing experiences with others engaged in the same reflection, is very effective because they help each other by, giving opinions, criticising, and ultimately teaching each other. In like manner, self-development packages are being designed with activities promoting reflection on current practice and include teaching styles comparison, peer observation, description of classroom situations and so on. All these practices are meant to promote whole-school approaches and greater consistency between staff (Kyriacou, 1991 In Peck & Westgate, 1994:5). An example of this practice is the recently proposed Reflective Action Planning approach.

### **Reflective Action Planning (RAP) Approach for Teachers**

A model of Reflection Action Planning (RAP) is presented by Frost, D (1997) with the aim to involve individual teachers to contribute to the effectiveness of their schools; to further their professional development in-site; and to get accreditation for the work done. RAP is described as an approach to ‘school improvement, which is specifically designed to empower individual teachers’ (Frost, *ibid.*3). Effective management arrangements are the essence for school improvement based on the imagination, commitment and effort of individuals working together. Within this framework, individual teachers need support not only from within the school but from external sources to be effective as change agents. RAP is a process that enables participants:

- 1) to engage in systematic curriculum, institutional and professional development work;
- 2) to make a full and direct contribution to the school development planning process;
- 3) to underpin and carry forward their development work through rigorous enquiry;
- 4) to develop their understanding of educational issues through systematic critical reflection; and
- 5) to present evidence of achievement to an external accrediting body (e.g. HEI) in order to gain accreditation up to Masters level.

(Frost, 1997:3)

According to Frost (ibid.), RAP is more successful when it is supported by an award-bearing scheme, though it could be used without accreditation. Although the model is intended initially to empower individuals, it has to work within a collaborative framework. To be effective, the RAP model must include two key elements:

- 1) critical reflection (journal, group discussion, critical narrative writing); and
- 2) professional consultation (with managers and colleagues)

(Frost, 1997:3).

RAP is intended principally to: 1) clarify professional concerns (roles, responsibilities, values, career); 2) personal development (priority setting, development goals); 3) action planning (systematic, written, negotiated); 4) professional action (inquiry, development, learning); 5) professional reporting (appropriate audiences); 6) portfolio development (evidence, commentary, analysis); 7) review (critical friendship, appraisal, mentor/tutor); and 8) accreditation (academic awards, publication). Finally, though this model seems complex and organic, Frost (ibid.) hopes that it will be helpful, systematic and more effective and manageable to the development work of everyone engaged on it. Proponents such as Westgate express that a concerning difficulty is that of making AR or RAP a 'widespread form of CPD'. They urge some teachers to get involved, but recognise that it will not be all (or even a majority) who will do so.

One final question is

### **What is the importance of INSET in education?**

There is some importance in ensuring that INSET has a positive effect on teaching and learning given that it is inseparable from them. As was stated above (2.3 above), one of the main purposes of INSET is to support teachers throughout the different phases of their professional development. This means that *INSET ought to be able to assist teachers in areas that include the achievement of competencies for the preparation of pupils in the different skills and knowledge at school*. There are a number of assumptions, which may flow from the importance of INSET. Its importance lies mainly in maintaining teachers united, up-dated and actively searching and enquiring for new teaching techniques and methods, along with knowledge on the subject-area they are teaching in or involved with. The motivation is given by the fact that more than one person is involved with and/or searching for innovations in the distinct fields. INSET involves strategies, many of them subjective, which the teachers acquire with training and experience. This training is being widely facilitated for teachers in the universities in the form of modules, as Peck & Westgate would say,



*‘... Many university education departments (UDEs) have begun to offer a more flexible and user friendly kind of professional study. Many have, in the jargon, modularised their courses.’*

(Peck, & Westgate, 1994:75).

A modular structure's importance lies in that these can provide a framework in which teachers may reflect on their own circumstances or practice (Westgate, *ibid.*). Modules can offer partial support when teachers want to undertake action research too. Teachers' initiative to get involved in INSET, by creating schemes of work or syllabus changes, choosing, creating, and making use of relevant and available resources, determining, criticising their own methods or new strategies, is meant to help them grow in their personal and professional competence. This motivates commitment to their own, as well as their colleagues' and pupils' development, and makes them more capable in the interpretation and delivery of the National Curriculum.

Having covered the most important historical and theoretical aspects of the literature concerning the In-service Training of teachers (INSET/CPD) in the UK, it is important finally to have a brief insight into the focus and areas of research about INSET and their impact on teacher training policies.

## 2.12 RESEARCH ABOUT INSET IN THE UK

Educational Researchers in the UK look mostly to the quarterly British Educational Research Journal for information about INSET and teachers' CPD. There exist also 276 periodicals published in the UK reporting on educational issues and 30 of them are considered as research journals with referred papers. One of the most famous associations in charge of British Education Research has been the British Education Research Association (BERA). BERA is trying to focus research efforts on policy issues in the UK. To do so, it has established six Policy tasks Groups nation-wide so as to investigate: 1) National Curriculum; 2) Assessment; 3) Local Management of Schools; 4 ) Teachers' Education; 5) Adult and Continuing Education, and; 6) Primary Education. The groups' aims are basically to: organise discussion; to review and critique of policy research; to encourage and promote dissemination of policy research. They also endeavour to provide opportunities for policy makers to be appraised of research findings pertinent to their discussion. Findings are giving place to meetings and publications and sub-issues are made to the National Commission on Education. Monographs on education and

INSET have been published by Falmer, NFER-Nelson, Open University Press, Cambridge University Press, and Routledge, among others, but mainly in the British Journal of In-service Education.

### **2.12.1 MAIN FOCUS AND AREAS OF RESEARCH**

The Economic and Social Research Council (1992) in a report issued and entitled Frameworks and Priorities for Research in Education: Towards a Strategy for the ESRC, identified 11 main topics in 4 focus areas of research. Priorities are as follows:

**Focus I:** Learning in Education Syllabus: communications and learning in specific subject domains; new technologies in learning; and the family setting as a learning environment

**Focus II:** Management and Organisation in Educational Institutions: performance and accountability in educational institutions; new organisation forms; democracy and participation; and cost-effectiveness, finance and productivity in education.

**Focus III:** Education and Training of Enabling Professions

**Focus IV:** Informing Policy Development: Education in the Inner city; the Changing face of the Higher Education; Lifelong Education and Training.

ESRC (1992).

Elliot (1993) points out that many fields relevant to INSET have been neglected in this report, to mention but a few: Theory development; Methodology; Motivation; and Utilisation of Research by practitioners and Policy Makers. All these issues arise from action research along with reflective-teaching, a fashionable concept largely advocated in this study as a career-long opportunity for teachers' development (see 2.11 above). But this is not new at all.

Retrospectively speaking, from the 1960s through to the 1980s, educational research seems to have been only listened to, i.e., very selectively, given that political parties have their agendas in government and the power to act on their beliefs, rather than on 'expert data'. The importance/inclusion of research in the formulation of policies appears to have been minor.

Extended review of the field (McNamara, 1984; Reid, 1985) evidenced that by the 80s, studies were mostly small-scale researches by interested individuals with no clear focus and using different methodologies. There were just small-scale studies, which came about as a corollary of the conviction and ingenuity of individual scholars, but not provided from national investment into



teacher training research. At the time, there were apparently few grants available (public and private); limited funds were controlled by DES regarding policy and developments and were in accordance with the government thinking. Although UDEs and LEAs were used to working together mostly in course-development projects, the socio-political context did not provide a proper/supportive environment for research into the training of teachers or related policy.

The 1990s were characterised for similar problems. The lack of attention to the research field seemed to originate from: 1) the scale of the tasks involved; 2) the methodological problems; and above all, 3) the lack of research funds. Funding for research in universities was (still is) given initially according to the number of students, but also in terms of the excellence of research on a scale 1 to 5 (see Fig. 5 below).

**RATINGS IN RESEARCH FOR 86 UDEs IN 1992**

No of Universities		Score
12		5
15		4
25		3
23		2
11		1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>86</b>	

**Fig 5** Adaptation made from Calderhead, 1994

In 1992, for example, departments scoring 1 (see Fig. 5) obtained no research funding, while departments scoring 2-3-4- and 5 received funds increasing in that order and calculated on the basis of the number of members of staff active in research (Calderhead, 1994). Calderhead clarifies, however, that very little research has been done directly by national or local government departments, or government funded bodies. In the main, when research is required, research institutes or UDEs, are contacted by the government to do so (Calderhead, *ibid*).

Lately, the system is changing, and so it does operate slightly differently in the UK. University funding is based mainly on research assessment. Research is in the main in the hands of DfEE,

government, teacher training agencies (e.g. HMI, TTA), LEAs, HE institutions and individuals interested in the field. The TTA has injected millions of pounds into research from 1996 onwards (see Ch 6, 6.4.1 on TTA for expansion), and so, this may be sometimes directive in the focus and areas of research.

Policy has been to rubbish a lot of educational research as worthless, especially when it is done by HEIs. These claims are not surprising, and have been echoed by many writers, among others, Greaves (1995) and Bassey (1994), Tooley (1998). In their view, educational research has not been taken into account in change, nor has attention been drawn to important changes, i.e., monitoring, and evaluation of INSET. Research influence seems to be strictly circumscribed, since in the current climate (in the mid nineties (1995)), other influence on educational policy is exerted. In research the professional opinion has been discounted and many times denigrated by policy makers and politicians despite the evidence presented (Greaves, 1995). As Greaves put it 'conclusions never seem to satisfy government or political parties' expectations given that 'its conclusions rarely accord with what the (present) government wants to hear. It rarely accord either, with some of the wilder claims of the Far Left, but both extremes use it to mystify the masses with specious interpretations of evidence' (Greaves, 1995). Changes were/are introduced on ideological rather than empirical grounds, in contrast with the fact that education research certainly continues apace with university staff producing unprecedented quantities of published material.

Ironically a group of publications that have not constituted research in the acceptable sense and indeed have made no claim to do so, have had a substantial influence upon the direction of teacher training in Britain. These are

*'The surveys undertaken by Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI), which are based upon HMI visits to institutions and their collection of information...'*

(Desforges & McNamara, 1979).

These reports seem to be plagued with biases as they tend to be partial in approach, fail to reveal their data bases, and appear to provide information which 'policy-makers wish to hear' (Tisher, et al. 1990:135)

In trying to answer to the question:

**What is the value of research if its outcomes do not count in the formulation of new educational policies?**



Tisher, et al. (1990) argue that history is frequently ignored, particularly after the advent of the National Curriculum. To these authors it is not a surprise to report that there is no indication that national policy on teacher training is being informed by research findings. At best, protagonists for or against a particular policy invoke research evidence *ex-post facto* in order to support their case. It might be argued that this is not right at all because if research informs educational practice, it must be recognised and located within the context of the real time in which teaching and learning take place. This is equally true for teacher training research, particularly for INSET.

### 2.12.2 INSET AREAS INVESTIGATED LATELY

One first survey worth mentioning was associated with *educational initiatives* by a government agency called the Manpower Services Commission (Tisher, et al. (1990: 130)). Its mission was to introduce vocationally oriented curricula into secondary schools based on active learning methods. Literature of very good quality was its outcome, though reservations exist toward its value for an international audience. The Manpower Services Commission (1987) seemed to be a good source for research about INSET. In this, Eraut, Penneychick and Radnor (1988) deal with a *methodology of evaluation research*, as they describe a meta-evaluation of great value.

The development of individual teachers, the management of professional development, along with the application of the findings derived from innovations have been treated by many, among others by McIntyre and Jenkins (1988) and by Hall and Oldroyd (1988). All this literature could be of great help for those involved in devising and managing INSET programmes for teachers.

Small-scale studies carried out by individuals on comparisons between serving teachers who did or did not attend in-service courses have been of great impact as well, e.g., the case of Lynch and Burns (1984) before ERA, 1988. Findings revealed that, among main causes, teachers did not attend in-service courses because: 1) they did not wish to give up their own time, 2) they had little opportunity for doing so, 3) it was too tiring after school, 4) they lacked financial support time, and that 5) there was no incentive or encouragement. In contrast, the main cause for attending In-service courses were: 1) to improve promotion prospects, 2) a desire to improve knowledge or enhance self-esteem; 3) improve teaching skills, and 4) financial motivation' (Lynch and Burn, 1984). The most worrying thing in this research was to find out how a good number of teachers claimed that they did not need in-service education.

A course of an *In-service degree* was evaluated by Hargreaves and Grey (1983). The course was committed to valuing the teachers' awareness and consciousness about their professional activities. One of its main aims was to enable teachers to become critical and undertake



research into their own classroom practices, in order to find solutions. Among the findings, it was revealed that in many cases teachers 'did not make particular use of the process and perspectives they acquired on the degree course' (Hargreaves & Grey, 1983 In Tisher & Widen, 1990:131).

Promoting partnership between teachers (INSET) and student teachers (ITT) upon research-based education was another interesting project under research.

IT-INSET is an approach to teacher education that combines school-focused in-service training for teachers, with school-based initial training for student-teachers. It was a government project, which is carried out nation-wide, with the central focus of teacher education. This was initially piloted as a 3-years project funded by the DES. Tickle et al. (1987) think that both parties are to be seen as engaging in collaborative approaches to classroom and school-based research (Tickle et al. (1987), to improve the quality of practice in the classrooms (Harvard, & Hodgkinson, 1994). As stipulated in the IT and INSET project, this type of partnership is central to initial and in-service training,. It was developed throughout the country with continued DES financial support (Ashton, Euan, Henderson, Meirit & Mortimer, 1983; Ashton, Henderson, & Peacock, 1989). The outcomes of this research were encouraging. Ruddock (1985: 281), on the other hand, advocates a 'need for a change in attitudes and habits among teachers and teachers educators, focusing chiefly in 'reflection-on action through classroom enquiry'. Westgate (in Peck & Westgate, 1994) concludes that this topic is one of a number of focal interests for incoming researches, above all in the area having to do with reflective teaching.

More recently, Westgate (In Peck and Westgate, 1994) reported on research about small-scale *Action Research* courses in Modern Foreign Languages (MFLs). Post-course evaluations returned to a UDE (in the North east of England) over the two years by part-time students revealed that attendance had brought numerous benefits to participant teachers i.e. social contact/collegiality; intellectual stimulation; personal growth; and research knowledge/skill. Westgate highlights the value teachers give to 'meeting others of like mind', as well as the high perception on the benefits beyond social contact for its own sake. Some of his quotations would illustrate aspects such as: 1) teachers' personal satisfaction with the courses, e.g., 'It was a good opportunity to discuss and compare ideas, it was a time for reflection, transcending the day to day nature of teaching'. Others mentioned knowledge: 'The experience gave me greater knowledge of myself; 'It got me back into the academic literature', etc., (Westgate, 1994 In Peck & Westgate &, 1994). As Westgate puts it: carrying out research on their own practice does seem to 'confirm the value which may be placed by teachers upon some formal support when they enter into or sustain a reflective practitioner's role' (Westgate, *ibid*, 78).



A concluding question is

**What has research on teacher training been about in Britain during the past few years?**

The answer might well be:

*It has been about individual researchers, or small teams, pursuing themes which are of intellectual or professional interest to themselves and which they judge to be important'.*

(Tisher, et al., 1990).

At the other extreme, there have been some very good attempts by individual researches to enhance the process of *professional development*. But, as Tickle maintains 'despite their successes and the contributions they make to understanding how teacher education can be enhanced, we are long away from thorough and comprehensive knowledge' (Tickle, 1987:29). For Tickle, there are lots of claims and demands competing and complementing, in an effort to enhance the quality, characteristics and competencies which teachers and NQTs (QTs) ought to acquire and demonstrate. Nevertheless, there is neither evidence nor literature of '**HOW**', by **WHICH** means this acquisition and demonstration should be achieved and judged (Tickle, 1987:27). Until very recently, for example, there seemed to exist, little link between staff development and learning in the classroom' (Shipman, 1990). The lack of a (mandatory) policy for evaluation and follow-up for INSET appears to have diminished the possibility to consider the impact of courses on the teaching and learning processes. Nonetheless, it is foreseen that this is going to be a topic of great interest in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century.

A good illustration of recent research on the impact of INSET in the process of teaching & learning is that carried out by Harland & Kirland, (1997), on behalf of the National Foundation for Education Research in York (UK). This research aimed to contribute to the construction of an empirically grounded theory of effective continuing professional development (CPD). To achieve this, the relation between INSET INPUT and its IMPACT ON PRACTICE had to be established. The outcomes were compared with an earlier model of their own (Kirland and Harland, 1991), and with other well-known models, e.g. Fullan, 1991; Day, 1993; Joyce and Showers, 1983, etc., of which they were critical. Kirland and Harland propose a new 'model outcome' to be used so as to delineate more clearly the effects of different CPD formats. Within the new model, they outline 9 outcomes from CPD, and explain how these have impact on practice (see Fig.6 below).

INSET MODULE OUTCOME

INSET INPUT

3 <sup>rd</sup> ORDER	Provisionary	Information	New awareness
2 <sup>ND</sup> ORDER	Motivation	Affective	Institutional
1 <sup>ST</sup> ORDER	Value congruence	Knowledge &	skills

IMPACT ON PRACTICE

Fig.6 Present writer’s interpretation of Harland & Kirland’s theory, 1997 (British Journal of In-service Education, Vol.23, No.1, 1997)

They conclude that there are direct or in-direct effects of CPD in classroom practice. That 1) ‘in order to maximise the chances of CPD leading to a change in classroom practice, all nine outcomes (prioritised in the order suggested in Fig. 6 above) need to be present as pre-existing conditions or to be achieved by the INSET activities’ (Harland, J & Kirland, 1997, British Journal of In-service Education, Vol.23, (1), pp. 76, 77). 2) Harland & Kirland (ibid.) pointed out that the impact on practice outcome validates the intention to bring about ‘changes in practice’ directly, by supporting the transfer of new skills to the teachers’ repertoire in the classroom, or through the indirect route of any other outcomes. 3) They warned, however, that in order to define the qualities of effective CPD, it might be necessary to relate different modes and formats of CPD to a subset of the ‘knowledge and skills outcome’ type (ibid. 76,77). 4) For them, the outcomes of their data appear to have significant consequences for an examination of the relationship between INSET inputs and impacts on classroom practice. Though the CPD input was ‘fairly standard in the way it was provided for many teachers across different schools, the effects on and consequences for different teachers were disparate and individualistic. The conclusion was, then, that ‘there is no uniform progression through the outcome-types, as different teachers in the case study displayed a wide diversity of individualistic routes through the various categories of CPD effect. This finding is in line with Day’s conceptualisation of

*The need to address individual and system needs differentially over time, and to provide an appropriate balance of opportunity to ensure continuity and progression’*

Day (1993: 25).



The findings seem to corroborate the case by, as they put it, 'identifying needs and designing CPD experiences from an individual's learning perspective, rather than global prescriptions of systemic needs and forms of provision'. There is obviously a need for regular evaluation and appraisal to monitor a teacher's progress along an unfolding outcome route. They put forward the questions of

**'How much do we know about the relationship between specific forms of CPD provision and particular effects?'**

In their opinion, when INSET is evaluated, there is a doubt about the issue about '*what works*', especially when it is encouraged by policy makers or practitioners hungry for evidence. The researchers finally pose the questions of INSET being

**'EFFECTIVE at WHAT?' and 'UNDER WHAT CONDITIONS?'**

Other recent findings on the impact of INSET on classroom practice are those arrived at in the already mentioned survey carried out in Northern Ireland (NI) by the DEN. The Inspectorate's survey of In-service support in the Education and Library Board carried out during 3 years (1994-95 to 1996-97) involved 267 schools, that is, 189 primary, 78 post-primary. There was clear evidence in the survey that work in the classroom is benefiting significantly from the support (training) provided by the boards throughout the province, and that the effectiveness of the service steadily improved during the time of research. Evidence of the beneficial effects of INSET programmes on teaching and learning was found in about 80% of classes seen, whilst there was *little or no* discernible impact of the training /support on teaching or learning in just 20% of classes inspected after INSET. Interestingly, the latter had attended INSET of various kinds, and talked highly of the quality of the courses in several occasions. They put some of the guilt for failure in achievements down to 'entrenched attitudes and unwillingness to change on the part of individual teachers' (<http://www.deni.gov.uk/keyinfor/inspecti...ortsmar98/other/inspectorate-survey.htm>). These findings might be arrived at or comparable, if a similar study was done in the mainland Britain. A relevant question, however, is,

**Whether, educational researchers have a contribution to make concerning the future of teacher training, or they are just irritating critics and at worst redundant?**

A significant step to solve the problems faced by research in education is to understand that the role of research goes far beyond the simple action of researching. Different authors' views and suggestions about the issue of research and policy are meaningful. Richardson's opinion is surely correct when he says that

***'Research should provide practitioners not just with findings in the form of activities or behaviours that work, but with ways of thinking and empirical premises about teaching'.  
(Richardson, 1989:160).***

Whilst most British educational research has been concerned about policy issues, which of course is considered important, there are nevertheless other priorities. Richardson (ibid.) advises that researchers in education should give a different focus to their research. In his view, researchers should redirect their attention to the *content* of teacher training programmes, as well as to the common idea that the essential role of the teacher is solely the *transmission* of knowledge and skills. Concentrating on the improvement of the teacher training area would be worthwhile in enhancing the students' abilities to transmit their own understanding of subject matter into effective classroom practices.

Researchers should focus more on the enhancement of the quality of education in their main areas: *learning and teaching*. Investigating teacher's pedagogical competence within the context of subject matter (Shulman, 1987) and optimising learning tasks (Doyle, 1986), would possibly be a good agenda as well. Besides, researchers ought to act as social critics and evaluate the impact of an imposed National Curriculum on the quality of children's education as well as the morale and practices of teachers and the kinds of preparation imparted in training institutions. This way, research would better be at the service of teacher training in its role of investigating, reporting and publishing accurately the findings, to tackle the partial and unfair policies governments impose on education (Tickle et al, 1987). Richardson (1990) suggests a research-based approach to teacher education as an alternative to bring about significant and worthwhile changes in teaching practices. Researchers such as Carr (1989b), and Wragg (1982) are of the same view.

Long ago, a suggested alternative to fill up the gaps in teacher education was to recast and redefine educational experiences of teachers and student teachers so as to stimulate pro-action, and lead potentially to constructive reform of schools. It may therefore be worth giving broad support to the proposition of *research-based teachers' education* advocated by readers such as Stenhouse, 1975; Elliot, 1980; Fox, 1983; Nixon, 1981, and much contemporary ones. This involves seeing professional development and the improvement of classroom practice through the study of the *teaching and learning processes* with the participation of teachers in research.

The latest TTA appointee, chief executive Mr Ralph Tabberer, seems to be highly interested in this issue of the *impact* of INSET *in teaching and learning*. He seems to be one of the few in administration to relate teacher training to standards in education. As he recently specified,



*‘...he has taken the job because it gives him a crucial role in raising classroom standards’*

(Ralph Tabberer, TES (4355), December 17<sup>th</sup>, 2000:3).

Mr Tabberer seems to link under-achievement with teacher training. This is in line with Education Secretary David Blunkett's first ministerial speech in 2000 in the Northeast of England where he talked about the teenager's under-achievement in England. He stated that 'we cannot fatalistically shake our heads and put failure at this age down to adolescence...teenage years were marked by a creativity, enthusiasm and passion which schools were failing to tap'. One of the (five) measures to tackle what he calls 'the wholly unacceptable lack of progress from age 11 to 14' is

*‘Training for teachers to improve their subject knowledge and to make lessons more inspiring’.*

(Blunkett, D, TES (4358), January 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:3)

## **2.13 DRAWING SOME CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

The first and salient conclusion is that, except the 5 statutory days, INSET is not compulsory in teachers' education in the UK, a fact that to a certain extent seems to lessen its importance. A fundamental question posed for INSET is, then, HOW best to serve the educational system in the UK if there is no statutory right to INSET during the teacher's career, and if there is not/enough motivation to take the courses, due to the lack of accreditation, in cases other than HE-provided?

INSET is being provided mostly by UDEs, LEAs and schools themselves. Since LMS is operating in schools, it has become an easy target for funding shortage. The decision whether or not to provide teachers with relevant INSET is left to schools. They have to decide on the typology and focus according to assessed needs. They may also provide the INSET themselves during the 5 professional training days with a school-based type, which may involve external speakers. They may provide SBI either in twilight, half, or whole day sessions.

INSET ought, initially, to take into account the teachers' needs. This should be part of an integrated process rather than a random event. As a process, INSET must, itself, be a component of a larger *process of change*. Therefore, providers ought to be sensitive to the needs and the existing expertise of their consumers/clients, and to recognise the change over

time. Despite the existence of evidence in relation to the importance of comprehensive needs analysis, this process, when it does take place, is usually described as falling short of the ideal. Since INSET tends to be 'on the one shot' type, with little assessment and/or no follow up support to use the ideas, it appears as if some experiences have failed to meet the needs of teachers. Action research and reflective teaching are put forward as one of the good options to take advantage of, in order to involve practitioner teachers more thoroughly in defining their problems and looking for solutions, hopefully long term ones. It may also help in making teachers more aware of their potential, their values and skills and to make the most of them through review, evaluation and reformulation of techniques and approaches in the classroom.

The DfEE and administrative bodies (e.g. TTA) do not seem to be doing enough to ensure that teachers are given more mandatory awards and loans as well as secondment and sponsorship to attend post-and higher degrees while in service. Funding should be available so as to meet national, school, and individual training priorities. Also, liaison with external providers and/or clusters of schools in the provision of INSET/SBI would be necessary and validated as the key to reaching good standards and meeting teachers' needs. Direct consultancy with the TTA, feedback from OFSTED and later on from the General Teaching Council (GTC) are concluded as crucial, to avoid educational failure, to raise standards, and mainly to meet teachers' needs.

Finally, it is believed that there is not enough research upon INSET/CPD in the UK, and that the existing research has not been given its due importance. In like manner, individual research projects seem to lack specific focus and when they do, results are not taken into account in policy formulation. Therefore, HE researchers who are at the forefront of this field should make of their research something more significant and pressurise for the inclusion of their findings and outcomes in the formulation of new policies and reforms in the education of teachers.

The present study seeks to verify claims made for INSET/CPD in the literature reviewed in this chapter, and to do so by way of surveys reported in later sections of this thesis (i.e. Ch 4 & 5). Next, a brief overview is given of chosen research methods, which are used in this study.

Their underlying rationale is explored and represented as an analytical model reflecting work reviewed in the present chapter (see 3.4 below).



## CHAPTER THREE

# SELECTION OF RESEARCH METHODS

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### 3.0 Preamble

This chapter focuses on the theory and constraints concerning four techniques chosen for the field research, namely: a multi-method approach consisting of documentary analysis, questionnaires, interviews and observation, and the rationale for the choices. It includes some reference to triangulation, an approach that will reassert the value of multiple methods in any enquiry, and concludes by drawing together the Modes through which INSET may be approached.

### 3.1 DEFINITION OF RESEARCH

For many, research has been seen as 'an esoteric enterprise necessarily done by outside experts' and so it tends to put some people off. In reality, it is another word for enquiry and the two terms might be used interchangeably. Broadly speaking, the term research means

*'Seeking through methodological processes to add to one's own body of knowledge and, hopefully, to that of others, by the discovery of non-trivial facts and insights...'*

(Howard and Sharp (1983:6)).

Research is then conducted to expand knowledge and to solve problems (Drew, C.J, 1980). According to the problem under investigation, researchers may select between two types of approach in collecting data: that is, qualitative and quantitative approaches.

For the purpose of this study, aspects of both qualitative and quantitative approaches were selected, since it seemed that both techniques were appropriate to the context as well as to the particular questions the research was trying to answer. However, the qualitative technique is more heavily used throughout the study due to its applicability to the nature of the enquiry.

### 3.1.1 QUALITATIVE APPROACH

Qualitative research means, 'any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification' (Strauss, et al., 1990:17). It deals with people's lives, stories, behaviour and also organisations' functioning, social movements or interaction relationships (Strauss, ibid.). This approach may be used to uncover and understand what lies behind any phenomenon about which something is already known. It also can give the intricate details of phenomena that are difficult to convey with quantitative methods.

The qualitative approach includes fieldwork methods such as participant and/or non-participant observation, unstructured observation, diaries, unstructured interviews, documentary materials, ethnography (used in anthropology with different meanings) (Burgess, 1985), or ethnographic case study and action research (Strauss, 1990:17).

The principles and techniques of the qualitative approach in social sciences gained strength in educational research world-wide, principally in the United States of America and in the UK, during the last half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Sharp, 1986). In education, all these methods contribute to give a greater depth to the analysis of classroom interaction (Mehan, 1979). Nevertheless, in some fields, e.g. languages, it seems to have been less used, with some confusion as to the terminology for describing the technique. Stenhouse (1984), for example, prefers to call his work 'case study' instead of fieldwork or field research. This is due to the intense relationship (interaction) between the two parties, namely: researcher and researched and the use of interpretative procedures.

Importantly, qualitative researchers are more concerned to understand individual perceptions of the world. They seek insight rather than draw on statistical analysis arrived at with the quantitative approach.

### 3.1.2 QUANTITATIVE APPROACH

Quantitative research is referred to as

*'What the researchers do with data when following the experimental or survey strategies'*

(Robson, 1993:304).



This method includes structured interviews and questionnaires (where responses can be counted), experiment, structured observation, surveys and analysis of official statistics. In this technique, researchers collect data, study the relationship of one set of data to another. It also measures, in order to produce quantified and sometimes generalisable conclusions.

According to Strauss (1990), any approach can easily use two or more methodologies in a study. The use of questionnaires, for example, is primarily quantitative, but it could include qualitative features as well. However, as Strauss points out, most projects involve just one method, partly out of conviction, but also because of the teacher's training and the nature of the problems studied. Thus, the approach adopted and the methods to collect data depend upon the nature of the inquiry along with the type of information required.

### **3.2 METHODS CHOSEN AND THE RATIONALE FOR THEIR USE**

It has been said that in carrying out real world enquiry, our perceptions are essentially the same as those available to the detective and to ourselves in day-to-day living. We can watch people...where watching becomes observation; we can ask them about it...where asking becomes interviewing, and we can also make use of questionnaires for the same purpose (Robson, 1993). Drawing on the above views, the possibility of using a multi-method style, consisting of documents analysis, semi-structured interviews, semi-structured questionnaires, and (semi) structured observation along with Action Research was first considered for the purpose of the present study. Eventually, the latter technique was dropped due to the lack of practicality in the inquiry. The first step was then that of sampling for eventual analysis and connection with the literature review.

The research essentially dealt with the CPD/INSET for secondary teachers in the UK and in a very brief manner in Colombia. This was done, by seeking related information from key people involved, through the fore-mentioned techniques, so as to answer the research questions stated in section 1.2 of the introduction. Documents dealing with the topic were additionally consulted in the UK and to a minor extent in) Colombia, given that they were considered as useful sources of information for the purpose of research. Consideration of the methods used in the enquiry will be individually treated next, along with the rationale behind their use.

### 3.2.1 OBSERVATION

In contemporary social science and educational research a wide range of techniques is employed in the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. But 'whatever the problem or the approach, at the heart of every case study lies a method of observation' (Cohen & Manion 1994). Observation has been described not as a natural gift, but a highly skilled activity for which an extensive background knowledge and understanding is required (Nisbet, 1977 In Bell, 1993: 109). A capacity for original thinking and the ability to spot significant events are relevant characteristics for an observer to possess during the process. Observation is usually associated with case study where the researcher typically observes the characteristics of an individual unit, a class, a school, a community, etc.

Observation can be used for a number of purposes, e.g., it can set out to watch, record, describe, analyse, and interpret what people do (Robson, 1993:191). According to Cohen & Manion (1994:106) the main purpose of that observation is to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the life of that unit for further generalisation about the wider population to which that unit belongs. It reveals characteristics of individuals or groups undiscovered otherwise. Therefore, this technique can be conducted quantitatively, e.g., via (semi) structured observation using schedules (for ticking and counting) and/or qualitatively through the observer's narrative accounts.

The principal and major advantage of observation is that of directness. This appears to contrast with questionnaires and interviews which, for some people, are notorious for discrepancies between what people say they did, are going to do, will do and what really they do (Oskamp, 1977).

Despite the advantages presented over other data collection techniques, many agree that observation is not an easy technique since planning and piloting are required and 'it takes practice to get the most out of it' (Bell, 1993:109). It is definitely not an easy or trouble-free option (Robson, 1993). Neither does this technique allow the researchers to be covert/hidden. The greatest disadvantages, however, appears to concern bias. Certain claims have been made, for example, about how the observers affect the situation under observation. Methodological and ethical problems can also arise concerning the behaviour of the observed, since the observer could well take on a 'very detached or very involved' role or might well be 'in between'.

Cohen and Manion address the problem of (external and internal) validity of observation. They question



*'...How do we know that the results of this one piece of research are applicable to other situation? ... fears that observer's judgement will be affected by their close involvement in the group relate to the internal validity of the method'*

(Cohen and Manion, 1994).

To this, Robson (1993:204) says that there exist sampling techniques to assist the observer in his/her role without 'doing violence to the approach', e.g. selective attention, selective encoding, and selective memory. The observer has to be selective in his/her attention according to what he/she is looking for (selective attention). The risk is that observers are sometimes quick in judgement. They rapidly (and usually unconsciously) colour what they see according to their personal expectations affecting the encoding and interpretation of what they observe. Factors such as initial and partial information can affect the observation. The advice is that observers have to take into account later information to modify a-priori judgements when necessary. Trying to start with an open-mind- and keep it open is the key to avoiding bias (Robson, *ibid.*) (selective encoding). Observers should also avoid waiting long periods after observation to construct the narrative account since they could fail in giving accuracy and completeness to the observation. It is then important to 'write up notes into a narrative account promptly' (selective memory).

Another possible source of bias is that of interpersonal factors. Due to the observers' own insecurity they may focus on and interact with affinity people in the group. This inevitably carries with it the potential for bias. The people observed could well be marginal and dissatisfied individuals in the group. Thus, a good strategy is to seek to recognise and discount all bias (interpersonal factors). Bell (1993: 111) draws the attention of the observer to the fact that, as in interviews, the observer has to be aware of dangers and try to eliminate preconceived ideas and prejudices. So, a second observer may give more credibility to the final results.

Two types of observation have been identified, namely: *structured* and *unstructured* (Cohen and Manion, 1989:129) with participant and/or non-participant styles (Bell, et al., 1993:110).

Frequently, the type of observation is associated with the type of setting where this is undertaken. Thus most studies in a natural setting tend to be unstructured observation studies often giving the observer a participant status, whilst much the opposite is true in an artificial environment (Cohen & Manion, 1994:109). Since unstructured observation may be time-consuming and difficult to manage, cross checking methods are often introduced. Writing up about the observed takes time; also its interpretation requires experience, and even more time (Bell, et al., 1993:110, Cohen and Manion, 1994). Hence, for a beginner, initially it may be advisable to use a *somewhat structured non-participant observation*. That is the case in the present research.



In education, observation is frequently associated with evaluation. As a result, efforts must be made by the researcher to avoid observation being seen by others as a negative experience. The observer function should be limited to that of 'gathering information', and should not be involved in evaluating teacher's classroom (Richards and Lockhart 1994:12). Despite problems, structured non-participant observation seems to be more reliable than for example unstructured observation because researchers can *more easily* avoid bias than with other methods.

Any structured observation starts with particular research questions in mind, though the success of the technique may depend upon the observer's ability in using a coding scheme designed beforehand, e.g., a structured recording method. The instrument is to be devised according to what is going to be observed, taking into account validity and reliability. The decision to adopt a coding scheme will depend on the data it is intended to collect, and this in turn depends on the research questions to be answered. Since this technique is time-consuming, beginners in observation are advised to adopt a more rather than less structured approach by devising some form of recording aspects of behaviour. Time should be allocated to the design of the instrument, since researchers have sometimes to start from the scratch (Robson, 1995). Researchers may use coding schemes at equal intervals (Cohen and Manion, 1994) containing either predetermined-categories to record what is observed or tightly structured observation coding schemes. *Checklists* and *category systems* are then two alternatives within a structured observation approach so as to save time in use

**Category systems** (see App. A), are systems that, unlike checklists use a relatively small number of items, each of which is more general than a typical checking list item, but that attempts to use the system to maintain some sort of more-or-less continuous record (Walker, 1985:136). **Checklists** (charts, grids), on the other hand, may provide a longer series of items recorded as present or absent. The crucial thing is to establish what type of activity is going to be observed and then decide on a coding scheme either in the exploration phase or when the method has been decided. Usually the research question(s) as stated by Robson (1995:207) and probably the related literature, together with some other methods such as interviews or questionnaires help the researcher decide upon the observation category to be used.

The use of already existing codes may allow researchers to solve the coding technique. Researches may well take one code 'off the shelf' after they have stated the research question(s). The use of an initial exploratory observational stage helps clarify and focus the research questions, and so the coding scheme has to incorporate those behaviours and distinctions important in providing answers to the questions (Robson, 1995: 212).



In this type of observation, non-participant observers can stand aside from the group activities they are researching and abstain from group membership. Robson (1993:206) sees the highly structured (non-participant) observer as tending to take a detached, pure observer's stance, where the technique is a way of quantifying behaviour. As he states, careful thought must be given to assessing whether the type of sampling used actually leads to a representative picture of the phenomenon under observation. Finally, Robson (1993:191) mentions that structured observation is assumed to be the right technique to get a real picture of the real world. Direct observation in the field, for example, allows for a lack of artificiality too rare in other techniques. Therefore, it has a higher reliability. As Bell et al. would say

*'Direct observation seems to be more reliable than what people say in many instances'*

(Bell, 1993:109).

Although the literature does not seem to contemplate a third style, for present purposes a semi-structured non-participant style could actually be claimed to be used, something in between structured and unstructured. Thus the observation may be regarded as quantitative since it makes use of structured schedules (quantitative) for coding procedures, and qualitative because of the use of narrative accounts (qualitative in research).

## **Rationale for the use of Observation**

In the present study, observation plays a relatively small but significant part in data collection. Its use was confined to one single setting (a school-based INSET session at a secondary school) and to the sole purpose of identifying activities typically involved in SBI in that setting at that particular time.

Thus, Observation was used as a complementary technique to obtain 'direct and first hand information' (Okskamp, 1977). This technique assisted the writer in comparing and/or contrasting the answers obtained from semi-structured interviews with the relevant deputy head, and the language HoD, and from semi-structured questionnaires administered to teachers (see 3.2.3 & 3.2.4 below). Process and contents were 'mainly coded' through instruments consisting of category systems and checklists (coding sheets) designed beforehand for the purpose (see Appendix A). The instruments were initially devised to fit immediate needs, and to answer the research questions set out in section 1.2 of the introduction. Nonetheless, the additional notes were most useful when the final account of the observation was written.

The observation was carried out in a detached non-participant style by an outsider to the issue observed plus the present writer as a second observer. Non-participant observers were preferred (rather than participant ones) as they were not very likely to overlook obvious facets of behaviour that participants would. They both acted as 'pure observers', collecting data for eventual comparison of notes. Given that the session was done in a natural setting (e.g. the staff's room) the presence of the two observers was obvious to the group, which might have influenced certain behaviour on people. The observers were located in the room in a position that enabled them to see the persons' face, attend to what they said, and distribute the attention more or less widely during the session.

### 3.2.2 DOCUMENTS

Travers (1964 In Bell, 1993:68) defines *document* as a general term for an impression left by a human being on a physical object. This technique includes analysis of films, videos, slides and other non-written sources. The most common kinds of documents in educational research are presented as printed sources.

Educational projects, like the current one, normally require the analysis of documentary evidence in order to supplement information obtained by some other techniques. Sometimes it could be the central or even the exclusive method of research, or may be taken as a complementary technique in a research. This method is used particularly when other access to research is impossible.

Generally speaking, documents have been divided into primary and secondary sources, both of them being made use of in this research.

*Primary sources* refer to those documents that came into existence in the period under research, for example: the minutes of a school's governors' meetings. They can be divided into:

1) *Deliberate sources* are produced for the attention of future researchers. They include: autobiographies, memoirs of politicians or educationists, diaries or letters intended for later publication, as well as documents of self-justification (Elton, 1967:101). A deliberate attempt is made by the authors to preserve evidence for the future with purposes such as self-vindication or reputation enhancement (Lehmann and Mehrens, 1971:24).

2) *Inadvertent sources* are used for a purpose different from the initial one for which they were intended. They are produced for instance, by the process of local and central government and from the every day working of the education system. They include records of legislative bodies,



government departments and local authorities; the minutes of academic boards, senior management groups, heads of department meetings and working parties; handbooks and prospectuses; examination papers; attendance registers; personal files; staffing returns; option choice documents; bulletins; letters and newspapers. They are considered to be the most valuable, common primary sources. They seem to be more straightforward than deliberate sources since they are aimed at serving contemporary practical purposes. However, they are not completely reliable since sometimes they may have been designed to deceive someone other than the researcher, or simply are addressed to justify actions to future generations (Elton, 1967:101).

*Secondary sources* are interpretations of events of that period based on primary sources, for example a history of a school, which obtained evidence from the governor's minutes. However, the distinction between them seems to be difficult since some documents might well be called primary from one point of view and secondary from the other (Marwick 1970:134).

Another classification has been done to documents according to their nature. They can be witting or unwitting evidence. *Witting evidence* involves those documents the author wished to impart. *Unwitting evidence*, on the other hand, is everything else that can be learnt from the document (Marwick, 1977:63). In speeches given by, for example, government staff announcing reforms, the witting evidence would be everything stated in the speech and, the unwitting evidence would be any assumptions unintentionally revealed in the language and the means used to announce the reform. It is indeed the task of the researcher to assess the precise significance of documents.

Literature and documents' searches are carried out to assess the feasibility of the project and also to inform the researcher about the background to, and the nature of the subject. This might have to cover both local and national sources of evidence. With the former level, the researcher is led to particular sources. As an example, a project with a school and its LEA might well lead the researcher to documents about both parts involved. Sources such as minutes or records would be of interest to the researcher so as to find information on meetings, agreements between the two parties involved, etc.

The selection of documents will be influenced by the amount of time available for consultation and analysis. Materials have to be wisely categorised depending upon the evidence looked for. Relevant classification of information to the project and 'controlled selection' (Elton, 1967:92) are necessary to assure success in the search. It is not prudent, for example, to include too many deliberate sources and to select documents merely to support personal views or hypotheses. A

balance is necessary in the selection taking into account the time constraints. Exclusion of some materials from the selection will arise as the project develops and the researcher acquires experience in saving time and energy.

To analyse documents, *external* and *internal criticism* should be involved. 1) External criticism looks for the genuineness (not forged) and authenticity of documents (Barzun and Graff, 1977:85n). It is what it purports to be and truthfully reports on its subject. In external criticism, it is certainly necessary to know that the author actually produced that document. To do so, certain questions are to be posed. According to Bell (1993:70), in the case of for example of a letter, the questions might be: 1) Was the author of the letter known in the place of the letter origin at the time it was written? 2) Do other sources corroborate that that person wrote the letter? 3) Does it use the same arrangements and have the same form as similar documents? 4) Is it typical of other letters, or documents written by the author? As it is unlikely and unnecessary for the researcher to verify all these details, thus, it is important to corroborate at least signatures (Bell, *ibid.*). 2) Internal criticism, on the other hand, can be made by subjecting the contents of the document to rigorous analysis such as: 1) What kind of document is it? - a statute, - a policy paper, - a set of minutes, - a letter from a long correspondence, - how many copies are there? 2) What does it actually say? 3) What kind of specialised language is used? 4) Who produced it? 5) What was the purpose? 6) What was the intention, - to command, inform, remind or to have some kind of effect on the reader? 7) When and in what circumstances was it produced? - How did it come into existence? 8) Is it complete? 9) Has it been altered or edited? 10) Is it typical or exceptional of its type? (Bell, et al., 1984). Documents are then a source to take advantage of. These may preserve evidence for self-vindication or reputation enhancement in case of being deliberate sources. They are mostly used when other access to research is impossible. Their use is a highly valuable source of data (Johnson, 1984:23).

Despite the importance of documents in research, there still exist factors, which might well make the researchers doubt their legitimacy, and genuineness. Duffy (1993) In Bell, 1993:70) recommends that in critical analysis, further enquires should be made about the author, i.e. social background, political views, aims and past experiences. It is also important to know how reliable the author is as a person: does he exaggerate, distort or omit? (Travers, 1964). It is advisable to enquire *how long* after the event the author produced the document to analyse its *validity* too. Importantly, it cannot be taken for granted that all documents can be available for research since some could well be considered as too confidential to be released. So, enquiries have to be made beforehand regarding access and availability.



For Barzun and Graff (1977:154), critical scholarship is in charge of assessing whether content or bias are considered important characteristics of a document. Looking to see whether the evidence given by the document widely supports the author's arguments is crucial in deciding whether the author is telling the truth. This is possible to know mainly when the document goes against the author's own interest. The researcher has to look for clues as to find out whether the author was affected by pressure fear or even vanity when he wrote the document (Best, 1970:105).

Documents presenting bias obviously need to be analysed cautiously, and cross-checking of information with other sources might be useful. However, bias does not necessarily mean that the document is not useful, since inferences can be made from the unwitting testimony. Another possible advantage of this technique has to do with bias on the researchers part. Therefore, it is necessary to avoid rejecting certain evidence, which does not support the research case. Resisting this temptation is advisable. It is a good idea to take into account the guiding principle in document analysis that says that everything should be questioned. Finally, the researcher needs to develop qualities of scepticism as well as empathy to be fair in the criteria and opinions given.

## **Rationale for the use of Documents**

This study adopted primary sources, especially inadvertent, as well as secondary source documents. These were used mostly as a complementary technique, all depending on the particular case under scrutiny (see 5.3 below).

As a result, the technique covered local, national and international sources of evidence, either through speeches with witting evidence, printed sources, video-tapes, etc. Inadvertent documents from central and local educational government nationally and internationally, in the form of letters, brochures, hand-books, option choice documents (bulletins), prospectuses and syllabuses for both ITT and INSET were consulted as well. These were considered as the most valuable common primary sources that lent help to the study.

The documents were provided by the diverse educational settings (LEA, UDEs, schools, libraries, etc.) in the UK confirming facts of access and availability. They were consulted in order to give the study evidence and to supplement valuable information/data (Johnson, 1984:23) provided by the other techniques. Thus they were used as a complementary technique in the UK enquiry, except in the case of Birmingham. In Colombia, access to documents was more restricted; therefore literature (books and web pages) and interviews were the main techniques.

Documents were seen both in a critical and analytical way, based on the guiding principle that everything should be questioned in documents, and taking advantage of the liberty that researchers have to expose their assumptions (Barzum & Graff 1977:154). Finally, cross checking of information from documentary sources was not considered relevant, since the documents, although sometimes difficult to interpret, seemed to be reliable. As for validity, most of the documents seemed to have been written/produced by the author, shortly after the events occurred.

### 3.2.3 INTERVIEWS

An interview has been defined as a two-way personal conversation initiated by the interviewer to obtain research-relevant information on a content specified by objectives of systematic description, prediction or explanations (Cannel and Kahn (1968) in Cohan & Manion, 1989:307). It is one of the 'methodological approaches giving access to the process aspects of education that can best alert the policy-maker to competing definitions of any innovation or initiative; that can identify levers of/ or impediments to change; and that can locate the unintended consequences of policy developments' (Hargreaves, 1986:119).

Interviews are also used as a means for: 1) evaluating or assessing a person in some respect; 2) selecting or promoting an employee; 3) testing or developing a hypothesis; 4) gathering data for any kind of research, and for 5) sampling respondent's opinion n (e.g., in-doorstep's interviews) (Cohen and Manion, 1989). There exist different labels for interviews, according to the final end, and lay out. The *main purpose* of interviews is, however, that of 'eliciting certain information from the respondent' (Moser and Kalton, 1977:271). Since interviews are made for research and enquiry purposes, their *final end* is that of gathering data. They can be either *exploratory* or *standardised* depending upon their aims (Oppenheim, 1993: 65).

*Exploratory interviews* are characterised for being in depth interviews, or free-style interviews that might well involve group interviews. They resemble a conversation, which is a reason why they are more accepted than standardised ones (Oppenheim, *ibid.*). *Standardised interviews*, on the other hand, are used in public opinion polls, market research and government surveys. Their purpose is purely data collection within pre-determined categories.

According to the lay out, there are three types of interviews, namely, *structured*, *unstructured* and *semi-structured* (Bell, 1984:183). For this study exploratory semi-structured interviews were chosen as part of the methodology.



A *structured interview*, is said to be more standardised, easier to aggregate and to quantify in respect of the results (Bell, 1993:93). This can take the form of a questionnaire or checklist that is completed by the interviewer instead that by the respondent. The use of structured formats is good advice for first time interviewers, since it eases the administration of the interview.

*Unstructured interviews* are usually centred round a topic, and in skilled hands can, as Bell (1993) claims, 'produce a wealth of valuable data, but such interviews require a great deal of expertise to control and a great deal of time to analyse' (Bell, 1993:95). This type of interview resembles more a conversation, and so, may well be interesting and produce useful insights into a problem. However, it is not advisable to the researcher who may need certain information and methods to be devised to obtain that information if at all possible (Bell, *ibid.*).

The *semi-structured interview* is highly advocated (Bell, 1993, Borg et al, 1979:313 in Robson, 1993), as the researcher deals with a dimension of greater or less structure (Robson, 1993:237). When the respondent gives information freely, prompts will not be necessary in most cases. In this type of interview, the interviewer works out a set of questions in advance, and is free to modify their order or wording depending upon the situations, as well as the appropriateness. Interviewers can give explanations, leave out unimportant questions, or can include some others. All this depends on the respondent and the interviewer's' perception (Robson, 1993:231).

The alternative type to the above mentioned styles ranges somewhere on 'a continuum of formality' (Grebenik and Moser, 1962:16), being formal and/or informal interviews. In the former, the interviewer behaves as much like a machine as possible. By contrast, in the informal interview, the shape is usually determined by individual respondents (Bell, 1993:93).

The type of interview selected will depend to a certain extent upon the nature of the topic and what exactly the researcher is looking for or wishes to find out. There are a number of advantages that arise from the use of interviews as used for data collection. A major advantage of them as seen by Bell (1993:91), Bell et al (1984:177), and Borg (1981:86) is their adaptability. They are a flexible way of finding things out (Robson, 1993:229). They can reach all kinds of respondents more easily, offer standardised explanation, prevent misunderstandings, and maintain control over the sequence in which the questions are answered (Oppenheim, 1992:82). Face to face interviews are an excellent tool in research to ease the task of the interviewer in asking people directly about the research questions (Robson, 1993:229).

Interviews also provide information impossible to get from a written response (Bell, 1993), given that questions can be developed and clarified. They provide potentially rich and highly



illuminating material to the researcher when the persons involved are open and frank, making the interviewee feel secure co-operating with the interviewer in responding to questions which would otherwise remain non/un-revealed (Borg, 1981). They provide accurate data through pure information transfer when the interviewee is sincere and feels motivated (Cohen and Manion, 1989:311). For some, interviews come into their own when numerous open-ended questions are posed, when the interviewer has to record verbatim the answers given by the respondent. Open-ended questions are seen as important for they usually allow the respondents to say what they feel in a richer and spontaneous way. They provide the chance for elaboration and validation of the researcher's observation and interpretation of events. They can along with conversations expand data beyond that available if the researcher relies totally on them (Olson, 1976:51). Nonetheless, the analysis of this type of questions is difficult.

The interview is considered as beneficial for getting 'improved response rates' in comparison with, for example, postal questionnaires. The rationale is that the interviewer can provide the interviewee with already prepared explanation of the purpose of the study more convincingly than a cover letter. The interviewee could seek clarification when a question is not understood and the interviewer can offer encouragement throughout interaction, in order to establish a rapport, and a freer flow of information (Olson, *ibid.*). A skilful interviewer can follow ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, which questionnaires never can do (Bell, 1993). Details such as paralinguistic features, tone of the voice, facial expression, hesitation, or non verbal cues, help the interviewer in understanding and complementing the verbal response, in discrediting or believing it, changing it sometimes, or even reversing its meaning (Robson, 1993).

But interviews may also be disadvantageous. Oppenheim (1992:82) has said that interviews are to some extent the reflection of their advantages, and so they have 'definite limitations as a research tool'. They are considered as being costly, and more expensive than postal questionnaires, in terms of data processing, the coding operation, and time (Oppenheim, *ibid.* 83). They are time consuming in terms of carrying out the interview itself, but in the main, in terms of transcription, when they become very extensive. Analysing responses can present problem, and wording the questions is almost as demanding as it can be for questionnaires (Bell, 1993). However, interviewers can be in control of time and focus to get something good out of them (Robson, 1992:229).

Using a tape-recorder may be considered by many, as disruptive and intimidating. This can easily block the respondent's spontaneity or shift their attention to the device losing concentration. Thus, interviews are considered as a highly subjective technique, and so, there is always the danger of 'bias' (Bell, 1993:91), considered as its major disadvantage. Bias may be a



consequence of their adaptability gained by the interpersonal situation (Borg, 1981:87) due to: the eagerness of the respondent to please the interviewer; the vague antagonism that sometimes arises between the two parties. It is sometimes the tendency of the interviewer to seek out (Moser and Kalton, (1977:271), Cohen and Manion, (1989)), answers in order to support preconceived notions, originating response effect because the interviewee may give inaccurate or incorrect responses which, as Borg (1981) puts it, differ from the real answers. Due to its complexity, interviewing itself has been compared to a

*‘...Fishing expedition’ (Wiseman & Aron, 1972)...like fishing, it is an activity requiring careful preparation, much patience, and considerable practice if the eventual reward is to be a worthwhile catch’*

(Cohen, 1976:82 in Jimenez, 1995).

Finally, validity and reliability of interviews require consideration by the researcher when collecting, analysing and interpreting data. To check the validity of interviews (Bell et al, 1984:191), certain details have to be checked: e.g. : 1) whether the interview measured or described what it purported to; 2) whether or not the evidence collected in interviews titled with that collected by other techniques (e.g., questionnaires, observation and documents); 3) whether the constructs used were meaningful and, 4) whether the evidence collected was predictive of the future behaviour of events.

## **Rationale for the use of Interviews**

Since the literature showed some relative merit attaching to interviews, this research adopted semi-structured interviews for data collection. . In the multi-method approach this type of interview lent itself to being used in combination with other methods (Robson, 1993:227).

This technique was chosen as the primary method of data collection in the contexts researched. Interviews were carried out at educational institutions having to do with the INSET/CPD of teachers (e.g., LEAs, universities, etc). They were considered to be feasible and appropriate for this educational research project.

Semi-structured interviews were selected to expand issues and topics freely and to probe areas opened up. The method provided the interviewer with some freedom to direct/redirect the questions to elicit more in depth answers and extended explanations. Schedules prepared before hand were used as a guide and in order to facilitate the analysis of results later on (Bell, 1993). Although all the interviews addressed similar questions, the schedules were modified according to the diverse roles of the respondents at their respective institutions. Meanwhile, the content of

the various schedules for the interviews was carefully designed to elicit information, and to verify the review of the literature based on the research questions. Carrying out the interviews was a relatively straightforward task, though expensive in some instances given that the economic implications had to be fulfilled by the present researcher.

Respondents from diverse parts of the UK were considered as key persons to provide the study with accurate information on the topic (see Figs. 7, 11, 12, 13 & 14 in Chapters 4, and 5). Most of them were very willing to be interviewed with only one exception (a Birmingham LEA's officer). The respondents were selected carefully in order to: give the study elements of discussion, comparison and contrast; to gain from the experience in their diverse roles within INSET/CPD; with the view of cross-checking the information of the different interviewees; and to corroborate what was observed and what was answered in the questionnaires. The attention of the interviewees was held by asking, encouraging, asserting, and/or concluding issues when it was necessary.

The interviews were carried out both in the respondents' place of work in the different cities and settings, and also over the telephone. Some interviews planned with secondary school teachers were called off, since they preferred to complete questionnaires instead. The interviews were initially planned for 30 minutes, but some of them lasted for nearly an hour. This occurred because of the relevance and in-depth responses, the expansion to some of the answers, as well as new questions arising at the moment of interviewing. Validity of interviews was assumed, though not reliability, since there was not a second interviewer to check and compare the findings by applying the same schedule and procedure (Bell et al, 1984:19). It seemed difficult to do so, due to the small scale of the research, funding, time constraints and lack of availability of others persons to help in the purpose. Finally, in line with Cohen & Manion's (1994:282) theory, the problem of bias was identified in this technique. The present writer had a tendency to ask the respondents questions to support certain personal preconceptions. Nonetheless, she did her best to be objective in the interpretation and analysis of the data, so as to give a fair and balanced picture of what was the situation of INSET in the UK and Colombia.

### 3.2.4 QUESTIONNAIRES

The term questionnaire is used differently, depending upon the author or researcher involved. Robson (1993) labels them self-completed, while others use the term for self-administered as well as for postal questionnaires. These connotations imply respondents filling in the questionnaires by themselves. For some others, the term also applies to interview schedules (Oppenheim, 1992:100). According to Oppenheim (1992) and Youngman (1986, In Bell, 1993:76),



questionnaires are used as a tool for data collection, for measuring a given specification and to yield useful data as well (Bell, 1993). After identifying a topic of interest and itemised information requirements specific to it, the task of the designer is then the structure of the questionnaire itself (Cohan & Manion, 1994:93). An ideal questionnaire possesses the same properties as a good law: it is clear, unambiguous and uniformly workable. Steps such as planning, consulting and deciding exactly what is wanted to be found (Bell, 1993:75) ought to be considered before its design. If the questionnaire has been well constructed, it makes easier the analysis and final interpretation. The time needed to code and analyse the responses can also be short, particularly if computer-coding analysis is involved. This makes of questionnaires 'a widely used tool' (Robson, 1993:243).

Questionnaires have many advantages. This instrument is referred to as very efficient in terms of research time and effort (Robson, 1993: 243), quick, and relatively cheap. Its appearance is vitally important. It should look easy and attractive, with plenty of space for questions and answers to encourage respondents. A compressed layout (Cohen & Manion, 1994:97) ought always to be avoided. The clarity of wording, simplicity of design, clear instructions, order of the contents, etc., make of questionnaires a successful technique. Questionnaires can easily have a broader coverage compared to interviews and other techniques. They represent a cost-effective technique to elicit information from large groups of people geographically dispersed or living abroad. They are a low cost means of data collection and processing (Oppenheim, 1992:102). Their design must minimise potential errors from respondents...and coders. Poor quality of responses may easily be the effect of, poor presentation, of asking the wrong questions; or lack of clarity (Jolliffe, 1986). Since people's participation is voluntarily, a questionnaire has to help in engaging their interest, encouraging their co-operation, and eliciting answers as close as possible to the truth (Davison, 1970). They also seem to avoid/minimise the bias of interviews.

Questionnaires are, however, avoided in some cases due to a number of disadvantages they may present. The data are necessarily superficial, as there is little or no check on the honesty or seriousness of responses (Robson, 1993). They have got in some cases very low response rates. They may present bias, no opportunities to correct misunderstandings or to probe or offer explanations; no control over the order in which questions are answered; no check on incomplete responses, incomplete questionnaires or the passing on of questionnaires to others (Vauss, 1990:98,99). Although questionnaires are apparently cheap, there are, however, hidden costs as well (Robson, 1993). Finally, for the results to have any sense, the construction has to be painstakingly done with very clear and unambiguous instructions, as well as careful wording of questions (Robson, 1993: 243). All this means, a lot of effort from the part of the researcher, and

while analysis might be easy, interpretation can be actually problematic (Robson, *ibid.*). It is advised for example, to avoid open-ended questions in self-administered questionnaires if the researcher cannot afford enough time to analyse them. This kind of question seems to be used by novices in many cases, but with experience such a practice seems to be extinguished (Robson, *ibid.*).

### **Rationale for the use of Questionnaires**

The term questionnaire is used in this study to refer solely to those which were filled out by the respondents (Oppenheim, 1992). They were used with the double purpose of data collection and also to measuring given specifications. Semi-structured questionnaires were chosen to complement the interviews and observation techniques and were administered to secondary school teachers as clients of university, LEAs, and schools' INSET/CPD in the UK, with the help of tutors, teacher trainers, officers and deputy heads respectively. Validity and reliability of postal questionnaires were seen from two different points of view, that is, whether respondents answered accurately, and whether non respondents would have given the same distribution of answers as did the returnees (Belson, 1986: 35-38). Neither validity nor reliability of questionnaires could be assumed in this study. Questionnaires' accuracy and follow up could not be checked later on, given the difficulty to interview respondents thereafter. Nevertheless, it may be said that the answers provided came from the desired sources, and that these were of great value for eventual connection with the review of the literature, and for triangulation with other techniques.

### **3.3 TRIANGULATION**

This multi-method approach has been defined as a form of 'cross-checking the existence of certain phenomena, and the veracity of individual accounts'. This is done by gathering data from a number of informants and a number of sources and subsequently comparing and contrasting one account with another in order to produce as full and balanced a study as possible (Open University course E811 Study guide 1988:54). In simpler words, it is the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some comparable aspect of human behaviour (Cohen & Manion, 1994:233). It is a technique of research to which many subscribe in principle, but which only a minority seem to use in practice. Methods for triangulation of findings are generally framed within qualitative research design. Triangulation is then the contrasting technique to the more vulnerable single-method approach, which is characteristic in the social sciences (Cohen and Manion, *ibid.*). In social sciences, the richness and complexity of human behaviour is mapped out through triangular techniques, by using qualitative and quantitative data, so as to study it from



more than one standpoint. This technique finally provides a means of testing one source of information against other sources in qualitative and quantitative research for discrepancy and correspondence to compensate each other in cross-validation (Robson, C, 1993:383). This is the case in this study.

Each of the above research instruments has already been accorded a rationale in its account. Also the rationale for this study needs to be expressed at this point coherently. This can be done by, drawing together the modes through which INSET/CPD may be approached, and the levels at which it has to operate.

3.4 MODES UNDERPINNING INSET

The modes identified in the previous chapter (2) were, according to the organisational theory, essentially threefold: 1) a top-down (T) somewhat behaviourist, imposed mode of INSET, characterised by a mixture of bureaucratic's (Owens, 1998:65) views, hierchical's (Bush, 1998:39) structure (pyramidal style), seems to reflect, above all, national priorities (see Fig.7 below, and also Ap. E3).

THEORISING MODEL OF INSET & ITS IMPLICATIONS AT VARIOUS LEVELS

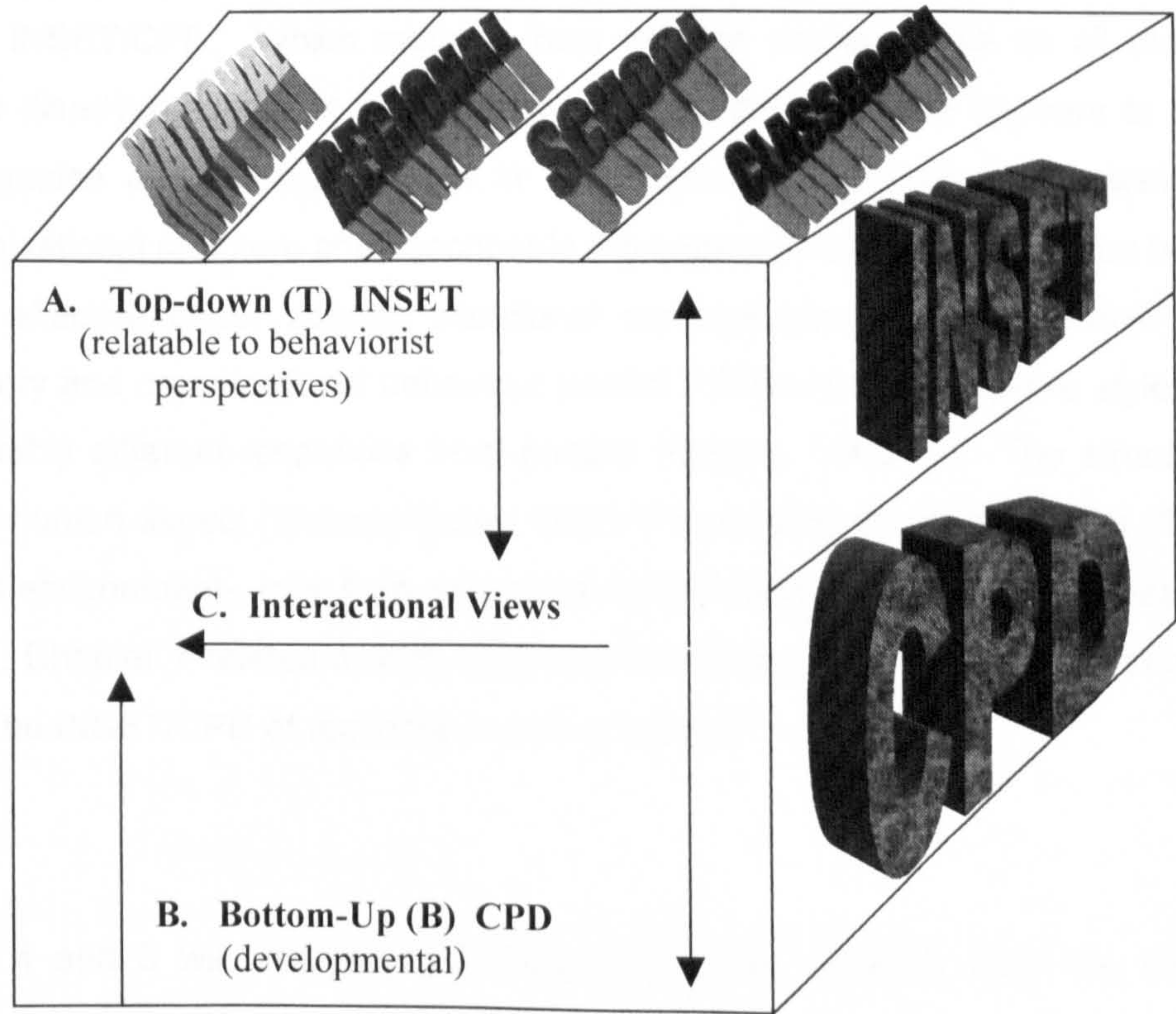


Fig. 7 Adapted from theory



2) A more bottom-up (B) model reflecting locally identified needs and harnessing particular teachers' creativity for addressing these (CPD), and rectify severe organisational difficulties (Doyle & Hartle, 1985:24). 3) A third, more *inter-actional* blend (see Fig. 7 above) of wider constraints and local initiatives, a 'contingency approach to organisation' according to Owens (1998:67), may also lend itself to the purpose of INSET/CPD's organisation and delivery (see section 7.7 & Ap. E3).

As Fig. 7 shows above, A (T) is most likely to operate with bureaucratic-downward centralised systems/forms of delivery of INSET, while B (B) will tend to do so in a more non-bureaucratic-upwards decentralised systems and in localised settings (see also 7.7) operating as CPD possibly with AR. Meanwhile, C (I), as a possible blend of the two above modes may be found where variety of, as well as central, and local delivery co-exist. The underpinning theory behind these modes suggests that there is, however, no necessary link between (eg.) top-down centralised modes and behaviourist theory, as (eg.) central authority may decree definition of needs, etc., to be met locally and by means thought as appropriate at that level. By the same token, key local figures (e.g., headteachers) may play a prescriptive (top-down) role within their level/sphere of influence.

It is up to educational organisations to choose one or the other style/mode for the organisation and delivery of INSET/CPD. Which mode is best may be unpredictable as all may observe advantages and disadvantages. At administrative level, although there appears to be no one best way to organise and manage people in all circumstances, there are, however, certain designs of organisational structure and describable management methods which can be identified as being most effective under specific situational contingencies (Owens, 1998:67). As the contingency theory and organisational behaviour predict, 'different administrative styles are likely to evoke predictably different responses from people' (Owens, 1998:70). The structure, tasks, technology, and human aspect (Getzels-Guba, 1957) of open system organisations -that interact with the external environment-, may help determine which mode the organisation goes for. Later on in this thesis, Chapter 7 relates model, level and structures described here as bearing some implications for the INSET/CPD of teachers in Colombia (see 7.7).

Next, Chapters 4 and 5 will analyse and discuss the data collected from the multi-method approach described and justified in this chapter.



## CHAPTER FOUR

# PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM: 1

## THE NORTHEAST OF ENGLAND

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### 4.0 Preamble

This chapter addresses the aims of the study through the first research and contextual questions, which are explored by a multi-method approach consisting of two parts. The first part deals with the providers of INSET in the Northeast of England, and utilises interviews, observation and documentary analysis. Meanwhile, the second part that deals with clients of INSET uses questionnaires with secondary teachers in the same region.

The aim of this chapter is broadly to understand training developments, particularly In-service teacher training (INSET) in secondary schools in the Northeast of England. This is done by exploring the views of different people in response to the first (of two) research question, namely:

- **What is the situation regarding the In-service training (INSET) for secondary teachers in the UK?**

Additional contextual questions complement this basic one, as shown in the Introduction (see 1.2). They deal with policies, planning and organisation, focus, needs identification, partnership, evaluation, follow-up and suggestions for an ideal INSET/CPD scheme. Question 1 is explored in both Chapters 4 and 5, although in different parts of the UK.

Since the study has been designed without a pilot, Chapter 4 has some functions of a pilot scheme, in particular, to make sure that data gathering is sound. It investigates whether or not some kind of pattern asserts itself from the analysis of data gathering in four other regions of the UK (see Ch. Five)

## **IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING IN THE UK**

In the UK, as seen in the Review of Literature, the major providers of activities falling into the broad category of INSET/CPD are the LEAs and various HEIs. In addition, schools can provide INSET themselves, or bring somebody in (e.g., LEAs, or HEIs). Schools can also hire the service from minor providers (e.g., professional associations, private agencies as well as individual consultants) which give a less formal or opportunistic non-award bearing INSET service. Representatives of all these providers will be considered individually throughout this chapter, and to some extent in Ch. 5.

### **4.1 THE NORTHEAST OF ENGLAND (NE)**

As stated in 4.0, this chapter has been divided into two main parts: the first part deals with the providers of INSET (major and minor), and utilises interviews, observation and documentary analysis. The second, concentrates on a cross-section of clients of INSET/CPD, using questionnaires completed by teachers in the region. It was foreseen that the objectivity provided by the triangulation involved would provide a credible picture regarding the situation of INSET in the NE.

#### **STRATEGIES: INTERVIEWING AND DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS**

The NE was selected as the first target of study to pilot the methodologies, given that it lent itself to an easy access for data collection.

The data were gathered from different informants and sources: namely, providers of INSET in Local Education Authorities (LEAs), some HEIs, and secondary schools. Interviews were held with eight people (see Fig. 7 below). They are, a general adviser (A) and a senior officer (B) from LEA1; two teacher trainers, one from a Department of Education (C), the other from the Language Centre (H) in U1; a Deputy head (E) and the Head of the MFL Department (F) from a secondary school. They represented together the major providers. Likewise, the chairman of the regional Association of Language Learning (ALL) (D); and a teacher trainer of the BC (G) represented the minor providers of INSET (see Fig.7 below). All these people were actively involved in INSET at the time of the interviews. The interview schedules investigated different



aspects of INSET by the diverse providers in the different organisations. An outline of these, together with details of the targets, follows.

4.2 MAJOR PROVIDERS OF INSET IN THE NORTHEAST (NE)

4.2.1 LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES (LEA-BASED INSET (LBI))

Interviewees' profile

SUBJECT A: At the time of this interview Subject A was an inspector, MFL advisor, teacher trainer and Foreign Language Assistants' co-ordinator in LEA1 (see Fig. 8). He had been working with LEA1 for some six years. Prior to that, he worked as a school-based mentor with a University Department of Education (UDE). In his multiple roles, his job as MFL trainer and advisor represented just 5% of his time. As a general advisor he offered subject-based INSET, support, advice and INSET training for teachers who were managing sixth form teachers in the NE. He also offered management training for middle managers, senior managers and teachers (see Fig. 8 below).

SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWEES' PROFILES IN THE NE

Subject	Major area	Teachs. Exper in (years)	Role	Exper. in INSET (in years)	Training prior to this role in years	Time of interv. (in mins)	Year of Sampling
A (LEA1)	MFLs	16	LEA1 Teach.trainer adviser inspector, FLA'coordinor.	6	none	35	1996
B (LEA1)	Sciences	12	LEA 1 Senior Officer	9	none	60	1996
C (U1)	MFL	30	Univ. teacher trainer	20	4 in ITT	20	1996
D (ALL)	MFL		Chairman ALL	4	none	20	1996
E (Secondary Schol, NE)	Sciences	17	Deputy head	7	none	30	1996
F (Sec. Sch.)	MFL (Spanish, French)	15	Head of Department.	5	none	30	1996
G (BC)	MFL	18	BC's Teacher Trainer	3	some...	30	1996
H (U1)	Linguistics	20	University Lang. Centre Head	7	none	30	1996

Figure 8

SUBJECT B: Subject B was a Senior Administrative Officer in LEA1. Among other functions, she monitored the spending of the training budgets from the government, and supported advisers in their daily tasks as trainers. She also provided advisers and inspectors with all kind of

information and documents about the affairs concerning their roles. A & B gave the account that follows.

## **Characteristics of the LEA**

On current policies, aspects of structure and administration of the authority and INSET were investigated. From the interview and documentary analysis it was learnt that LEA1 was located in the NE together (but independent from) with seven more LEAs. It was in a metropolitan district of a compact group of 117 schools. The authority covered quite a small geographical, but densely populated area. It had a large number of primary and secondary schools that were organised on an 11 to 18 or 13 to 18 basis. At the time of this interview) there were around 3,500 or more teachers under its management.

The authority had a two or three tier system. Some of the schools were primary (4-11), and went into comprehensive schools (11-18). The others were three tier, that is to say, first (4-9); middle (9-13) and high schools (13-18). This system was inherited when the boundaries of the Council were changed some time ago. LEA1 consisted of four divisions: 1) the pupils-parents support division; 2) the planning development division; 3) the financial division; 4) the advisory and inspection division.

In this research, special attention will be given to the advisory and inspection division, since this was responsible for INSET/CPD, central topic of this research.

## **The Advisory and Inspection Division**

The Advisory team consisted of 16 members who were run by the LEA Deputy Director (Chief adviser as well). They controlled issues related to the management of INSET. The team was divided into two sub-sections: the Advisers (5) were administrative supporters based in the Central Office and worked in the main advising Heads of schools. The Advisory Teachers (10) had to go out to work with the teachers in the classrooms, or in the TC. They might also help the school in the formulation of policy (for ownership), and supported individuals as well. The division was centred at the Education Offices, although most of their staff might be based in different schools in their role as inspectors, advisers and/or subject teacher trainers throughout the year.

All these members of staff were general advisers with an additional subject responsibility (except the senior adviser and the subject education adviser). They were distributed as follows: 3 for primary schools; 1 for Music; 1 for Special Education; 1 for English; 1 for Mathematics; 1 for



Sciences; 1 for MFL, 1 for Humanities, 1 for Religious Education, 3 for Physical Education; 1 for Technology; and 1 for Design and Technology (16 altogether).

The advisory service offered management training for middle managers, senior managers and teachers. They contributed to training schools' governors and to supporting the work at schools in developing these particular users (B). It was partly training and partly school's development. All National Curriculum areas were covered by advisers, who might have an advisory teacher to support their role. They all, advisers and advisory teachers, had actually two or three hats to wear in their general adviser or subject capacity, e.g., as advisors at school, advisers to the authority, and inspectors as well (B). As advisers, they might perform in a general or subject specific capacity, in particular schools and key stages. Most of the courses were offered by the subject advisers, advisory teachers, or by both of them, as part of their role. The advisers seemed scarce in number but their responsibilities and roles were many.

According to A & B, INSET was planned on acknowledged needs. Schools informed the authority of their needs either through the adviser, HoDs, Head teachers or deputies, or through the staff development co-ordinator. The authority might also pick out the schools' needs through the staff development plan presented by individual schools. Their interest was, as the senior administrator would say,

*'To stop them (the teachers) going outside to universities because those courses are charged up and costly'*

(Subject B).

The INSET planning and organisation procedures of LEA1 seemed good in terms of number and diversity. LEA1 offered, overall, INSET of different types e.g. the Central INSET courses that trainers advertised and teachers attended. There was also a particular contribution to school-based INSET (SBI) where officers worked alongside teachers especially on identified weaknesses. According to the LEA's booklet, around 120 courses covering all subjects throughout the year were planned, in a proportion of 2 to 5 for secondary teachers (6-8 for primary). Verifying the review of the literature, the training sessions took place for half a day, a whole day or two days, but could be 'twilight' as well, it depended on how intensive the course was. The latter manner was claimed to be very productive due to the number of teachers targeted, and because it took place in the school. It was also confirmed that by law, each school was entitled to a different number of training days by an individual adviser through the Service Level Agreement. Schools would share sometimes training with other neighbouring authorities to justify the costs of the courses and provide the service to areas where there was not enough

expertise available (B). Training sessions' size mostly depended upon the subject with a maximum of 10-12 people though numbers could easily increase to 200 when it was on special needs or management. A & B pointed out that, on the overall level: subject matter was always taken into account in the assessment of needs, after the advisory service researched with schools annually. Through a Top-Down (T) and Bottom-Up (B) models (see Fig. 9 below, 3.4 above), the data collected served to plan the Central INSET as well as the Service Level Agreement, which was a framework within which they supported teachers directly in schools.

**INSET NEEDS IDENTIFICATION WITH TOP-DOWN AND BOTTOM-UP MODES**

Methods of INSET Needs assessment	Time scale  Short (S),Long (L), Med (M)	Style:  Top-Down(T) Bottom-up (B)	Cost in time  High (H) ;  Low (L)	Comments
1. Headteacher ✓	S	T	L	a single view, no commitment from staff
2. Senior Staff ✓	S	T	L	may miss individual needs
3. Staff meeting ✓	S	B	L	superficial, needs preparation; few may dominate
4. Adviser ✓	M	T	H	impersonal, paternalistic
5. Record research ✓	M	T	H	focus on past, quality of records
6. Questionnaire ✓				time-consuming, open ended
7.LEA-Head /LEA Staff ✓	M	T/B	L	needs good questions
8. Head-HoD or H staff ✓	M	B/T	L	quick but superficial
9 Groups in school or LEA ✓	S	B	L	sectional interest found

Figure 9. Adapted from the Calderdale’s LEA System & 3.4 above. Information made available by LEA1, a secondary school & its MFL department in the NE.

After the analysis, decisions were made centrally on the courses to be run. This is the method Wragg (1984:43) suggests as ‘ideal’ in the identification of teachers’ needs, if well used, as it involves consultation between the whole staff of a school and external providing agencies.



A summary of needs' identification procedure in LEA1 is given in Figure 9 above through the Calderdale (1986) LEA system. This model seemed to be appropriate to illustrate and simplify the picture of INSET needs assessment in real practice in the NE (or elsewhere). As read from the figure, needs are assessed on a 'Top-down' (T), and Bottom-up' (B) models, despite how bureaucratic the styles appear to be (see 3.4 & 7.7). 9 (out of 20) existing methods for teachers' needs assessment were used by the LEA1 and its MFL's division. Methods of identification included: Head teachers (1); senior staff (2); staff meetings at schools (3). The LEA itself identified the needs through questionnaires (6); its staff (3); advisers (4), Heads (7), or by groups in school or the LEA (9). As concluded from Figure 9, no method used seems by itself to be ideal in the assessment of needs. Some are considered bureaucratic, hierarchical and directive with pyramidal structures (see 3.4; 6.1.2 & 7.7), others time consuming, missing individual needs, being superficial, etc. Perhaps to avoid bias and/or filtering out needs, a blend of methods was used by both the school and LEA1. The triangulation technique seemed to show that in practice, some of the needs were actually filtered out in the LEA1, due possibly to government priorities.

Cross-examination of brochures with, for example, the questionnaires' results demonstrated that the clients of INSET were not always given the foci and type of training they asked for. Courses in the LEA1 were mostly planned on school development, therefore, there was no much subject-related provision. The outstanding concept was that 'training was targeted to help all teachers to improve their performance' (B).

Nevertheless, confirming the Literature Review, the techniques disclosed that there was no available secondment for the teachers to undertake the INSET, but only a kind of covering for short-term training through the supply scheme. Schools were given a training budget, and all different departments would decide on relevant courses and notify the co-ordinator on their choice. But it was ultimately the co-ordinator or perhaps the Head teacher who made the final decision. Schools either bought the time of the LEA's trainers or paid the fee for a member of the staff to attend the short-term course. They might pay for a supply teacher for as long as the course lasted, although few provided subject-supply teachers. Schools could also decide to pay for a university course if it was convenient.

Corroborating the Literature Review, interviews showed that LEAs and Universities in the NE were competitors in the market, so that there was no opportunity for co-operation between them (A). LEA1 provided schools with courses other than those of the University, since the latter had an INSET programme run against the LEA's (B). Schools, sometimes preferred subsidised LEA's courses which made the service more economical (A).



LEA1 evaluated its courses in the form of questionnaires or verbal comments at the end of the last session of the courses. According to the interviewees the results were mostly positive. Trainers expected that teachers find their training appropriate and effective (B) as it was 'a free choice'. Given the small team size in the authority, they assured quality because

*'...It is like any other business, if the purchaser has complaints, it has to be withdrawn from the market'*

(Subject B).

The theory mentions that 3 steps ought to be given during the evaluation procedure: 1) the activity itself; 2) the outcome of the activity; 3) the subsequent events or activities. In practice, the process of evaluation in LEA1 seemed incomplete. The procedure was limited solely to the first step, namely, the evaluation of the activity itself. This type of evaluation does not appear to be a desirable one because it is neither possible, nor a good idea, to evaluate the INSET itself alone (Radnor, 1989 b), as the INSET might not have a purpose that extended beyond, as it should. Moreover, the outcomes did not always appear to be judged and evaluated by incorporating a thorough procedure, e.g., 1) needs' diagnosis, 2) planning, 3) effecting the plan, 4) evaluating the results. The outcomes were not being monitored, and the evaluation procedure did not include reference to action on the part of participants in order to implement what they had learnt. Very few of the courses advertised by the LEA1 in the booklet had planned outcomes. This might suggest that the purpose of the courses might well be lost, and the results unknown since a follow-up did not take place either after the activity.

The interviewees therefore confirmed the Literature Review about the lack of follow-up for the (LEA1's) INSET. This is somehow understandable, as there is no law to ensure that the themes are followed-up by advisers in schools after a course finished; there is neither formalised model, nor formal requirement in the majority of cases. The lack of inclusion of the follow-up activity in most of the course descriptions, was an indication that this (follow-up) was considered as a second option suggested by the clients of INSET rather than by the planners / providers. Direct implication of this might be little impact of the courses in the classroom. Besides, since the intended outcomes of the INSET were not very much in the mind of its planners, the INSET might not be a response to the teachers' genuine needs.

A suggestion for LEA1 is that the follow-up could be made free of charge in schools, as part of the service level agreement. This way the course attendants would feel that there was a continuation support and advice extending back into their own classroom (Huntingdom, E.D.C,



1990). Interestingly, the advisers recognised that 'most of the schools did not ask very often for the service (level agreement)' (A , B). Thus, as A said,

*'A follow-up could be possibly made after the course takes place, when required by particular schools'*

(Subject A).

The allocation of policies and time for a follow-up as compulsory parts of INSET ought to be a fact. It would give the teacher training its own value, efficiency, and credibility among clients. Planners of INSET ought to be aware of these factors and together with schools ought to fill the gaps, as was suggested in the Literature Review.

The field research also concluded that the venue for LEA-based INSET in the NE (and elsewhere) largely depended upon the type of course, and the number of teachers attending them. Teachers preferred places others than their own working site, e.g., a luxurious hotel, for the sake of being away from the school, and to avoid interference.

An ideal form of INSET, according to A & B would effectively analyse the needs, identify the most appropriate themes, and deal with them intensively. It would also be appropriate to follow-up teachers either by further intensive workshops on themes or by the advisers working in the school with the departments, identifying elements which they saw the need to address. Meetings with all staff would normally be held after the school day, and advisers could work with some of the staff during a free period, or work alongside teachers in school days.

### **Modern Foreign Language Advisory service in LEA1**

The situation of INSET in MFL in LEA1 did not differ much from the previous picture. Data showed that the authority had a MFL general adviser (A in this case) with a number of responsibilities, among others the subject one.

There were usually five or six days training on different themes throughout the year, which were advertised in Central INSET (for students (ITT)). The length of the courses lasted, as in the other subject areas, half a day, one day, or two days (A). The advisory teacher might also work with teachers in schools, attending departmental meetings, identifying with/supporting the teachers, in particular problem areas.

In line with the Review of the Literature, the INSET for MFL was rich in opportunities for teachers. INSET was provided by the LEA, together with Universities, national subject associations, such as the Association for Language Learning (ALL), as well as European Union funded organisations, i.e., LINGUA. The providers were particularly in open competition for the service. As explained

*‘Education and teacher training have been placed in a competitive market...As far as schools receive resources, they can deliver them to whichever training body is offering the most appropriate training’*  
(Subject A).

In contrast with other subjects, the courses were mainly on methodology and assessment. The attempt was first of all to learn ‘what teachers’ needs and desires were, and then to incorporate those into the programme’. The teachers had an examination syllabus, but during the training, they devised schemes of work to identify the content that they wanted to take pupils through. The MFL division gave some time to ‘equal opportunities’ as well. This was because the content of the courses, apparently tended to have bias towards topics which might have a greater affinity for girls, i.e. shopping, family, school. Moreover, the MFL curriculum largely focused on the speaking skill, in which females are thought to have more aptitude than males do (A). Nevertheless, in keeping with the Review of the Literature, it was recognised that the programme was heavily defined by the NC and its attainment targets. Given that the NC was revised to take effect from September 1995,

*‘The courses were designed to up-date teachers’ knowledge and changes on it...’*  
(A & B).

With this in mind, a lot of training had been connected to the NC and teachers were being forced to take it, with consequent advantages and disadvantages.

In line with the Modes of INSET/CPD referred to in 3.4, 6.1.2 & 7.7, the INSET was related to both the schools and the teachers’ needs (B-U). On the overall level, the needs’ identification procedure in MFL seemed consistent with the other subject areas. The advisory service researched with schools, (model 5, Fig. 9 above), and an annual need’s analysis was performed by the Advisers (model 4). The school departments would normally have established particular priorities for that year at meetings (model 3), e.g. the use of more IT, the supply of language, etc. They would normally look to an outside force to enable the attendants to bring some new ideas into the department, and help others to improve both performance and development. Some



HoDs might use a questionnaire (method 6, Fig.9). Others might make all the decisions themselves (model 7 in Fig. 9). It was up to the department really (A).

Yet it appears unlikely that teachers' needs were actually considered in planning LEAs' INSET. The fact that the advisers, not the advisory teachers (who were in direct contact with the teachers and classroom), had direct control over INSET might have caused a tension between planning and teachers' actual needs. As put by A, the NC was the priority at that precise moment. This kind of Top-down (T) model of INSET was not always welcome (see 3.4 & 7.7), mainly among those teachers who hitherto had opposed elements of the NC, and perceived it as an imposition.

Much worse, the fact that the INSET in MFL was planned for induction courses, rather than for in-service teachers, led to the disclosure that LEAs were not actually planning and co-ordinating INSET according to the serving teachers' needs.

Despite that, the evaluation of INSET in MFL, as claimed by B, was positive in the main. One of the difficulties he mentioned was that trainers could never be sure of the extent to which teachers put into practice the kind of advice that they were given. Therefore, the outcomes would be only identified through the schools' inspection. In A's words,

*'...When advisers visit the schools, they get an idea of how well different teachers put it into practice (what they have learnt), but not all teachers will modify their practice to the same extent'*

( Subject A ).

INSET was 'at its most effective' when the Advisers visited the schools and supported the implementation of the new strategies, as part of their duties. This way, the principles dealt with during the course and practice had real support. There were no other formal means of establishing the effectiveness of the courses. Officer B mentioned that the follow-up for MFL INSET could take one of two forms: e.g. that of subsequent workshops that were planned on the basis of an initial central INSET day.

Alternatively, the adviser's contact time as part of the service level agreement could be part of a follow-up procedure (see Fig.15 below). The decision largely depended on individual schools (B). An ideal form of LEA-based INSET in MFL would combine the link that can be established between central and in-school training and support (A), in a sort of interactional (I) approach (see 3.4 above).

## Summary

Five striking issues were concluded from the interviews with LEA1 Officers (A & B), cross-checked with the documentary analysis technique.

1) Contradiction between apparent teachers' needs identification, and assumption of teachers' needs by the advisers; 2) the absence of a structured evaluation to INSET; 3) the lack of a follow-up procedure after the courses finished; 4) a tension between managers' and teachers' aspirations and outcomes from INSET. Finally, the use of T & B, modes of INSET was evident in the organisation, management and delivery of INSET/CPD in the NE (see 3.4 & Ap. E3), with little trace of ingredients of the interactional (I) mode. The general picture was that despite a need's diagnosis taking place, the INSET followed government prescriptions (T mode). This allowed the conclusion that the needs were actually filtered out in the LEA. On the one hand, the INSET might well occur as an isolated issue, more as an event than as a process. On the other hand, since there was no thorough procedure of evaluation or monitoring after INSET, the intended outcomes, were unknown or not occurring because the provision of the INSET activity was not, in principle, a response to a genuine need. The INSET could also be labelled as meaningless given that there were no apparent purposes that extended beyond the activity.

Due to a lack of unity in the participants' and managers' needs, aspirations and outcomes, reconciliation of these principles would be urgent at LEA1, and its MFL division. Most importantly, consideration of the planning activity ought to include evaluation and follow-up to the courses given that these two procedure ought to be inseparable. Finally, a tension emerged between provision and real needs in MFL. If INSET was not specifically planned for teachers, but for other various clients/consumers (ITT), a follow-up was not formally necessary. Even worse, if the teachers' needs were not thoroughly being assisted, but filtered out instead, the teachers would be inspected on skills and contents they should not be trained for in MFL. The second important provider of INSET, namely higher education institutions (HEI) represented in this study by Universities is analysed next.

### 4.2.2 UNIVERSITY (UNIVERSITY-BASED INSET (UBI))

Higher Education Institutions (i.e. colleges and universities) have been the most important providers of INSET for secondary teachers in the UK. In this part of research, two teacher trainers, one from the University Department of Education (UDE), and the other from the



Language Centre (LC) of U1 in the NE of England, were targeted. They answered questions about their professional background, and the current situation of INSET in their respective departments. This information was cross-examined with documents so as to give a more accurate picture of INSET in the university in question.

### **Interviewees' profiles**

**SUBJECT C:** Subject C was a teacher trainer in the UDE in U1 (see Fig. 8 above). He studied MFL majoring in French and German in the University of Oxford and had been a teacher trainer for some 20 years before this interview. He joined U1 in 1974, and began to offer INSET in 1978. At the time of this research he ran courses on ITT, partly for future teachers of MFL (i.e. French, German and Spanish). He contributed more generally to their training because of his interest in the role of the mother tongue in teaching. Additionally, he offered special subjects in language in the classroom.

He started working on the involvement of language in learning by offering a kind of INSET which was not necessarily seen as practice-related or needs driven, but as part of higher degree studies, mainly in language across the curriculum. He had done so ever since. During the last 10 years he had also been offering In-service courses in aspects of MFL teaching. At the time of writing up he had retired, but continued being active in writing, research and supervision of research students throughout the country.

**SUBJECT H:** Interviewee H started his career as a trainer in the Language Centre (LC) in U1 with a group of South Arabian Primary teachers of all subjects. Eventually, the LC started offering Master programmes that included INSET as part of the activities, with him as its head. He recognised that in a way he did not have a preliminary training before embarking in INSET. This lack of training became a problem because he had to teach himself as he went along with this job. He recalled how as a volunteer overseas for four years in Thailand, he painfully acquired teaching techniques and skills. After that experience, he read for an MA in England.

When this interview took place, he was already a PhD graduate and had become the senior lecturer in the LC in U1. Among his duties, he directed English teaching for foreign students from different subjects, i.e. engineering, science, education. He also ran Master courses for teachers in Applied Linguistics, and some others directly related to teaching training. At the time of writing the thesis, he had started a new job in Finland as a university teacher trainer but continued, as

Subject C, actively involved in supervision of research students with the LC in U1 in England. C and A opinions originated the following sections.

## **INSET IN U1**

Subject C asserted that there existed a very complex integrated modular system running in the University Department of Education (UDE), involving primary, secondary and further education teachers. Within this system, teachers could take modules in a variety of combinations and proceeded to a range of different qualifications. As confirmed in the documents available (e.g. prospectuses and brochures), it was an open access system, for individuals sufficiently qualified and experienced, i.e. 2 years teaching experience and a graduate status with an appropriate professional qualification.

Subject H, on the other hand, made reference to two different kinds of training at the LC: one, the training for the staff, the other, for teachers engaged in MA courses. For the purpose of this research, only the latter is taken into account.

Commonly, the courses of the two departments of U1 were found to be advertised and of open access for teachers with two years of experience and graduate status. Nonetheless, although the UDE and LC had similar principles (i.e., providing INSET for teachers), some main differences were found in the planning procedure. Firstly, LC did not appear to plan/offer non-award bearing courses in or out the centre for its trainees, whereas the UDE did it on a large scale, for part and full-time teachers. Secondly, the UDE award-bearing courses were twilight and were taken by teachers mostly while in the job. The LC ran day-time courses all year round on a full time basis, where the teachers with very few exceptions had to take a year off or give up their jobs. One other major difference was that the UDE courses might work by accumulation of open modules, or follow the pathway system, whilst the centre's trainees followed compulsory modules.

Courses in the UDE were in the range of £120 per module, depending, to some extent upon the level that the students took them at. The non-modular courses varied the price but as an average the figure was, like the LEA's courses, £50 per teacher. In this case, teachers were released from school, and might have a supply teacher in their classrooms. In the LC and the UDE, full-time Masters courses' (M A and M Ed) fees ranged at that time between £2,300 for home students and £5,700 for overseas students (£6800 by the year 2000). The LC trainees paid themselves for the tuition fees, whilst there were still some cases of sponsorship, but very seldom of secondment in the UDE.



Regarding typology of INSET, the UDE dealt with two types of courses, that is, shorter (less formal) and longer or modular courses (formal). The former varied in length, the typical one being of 4 to 5 sessions, though it might also last a whole day or a combination of two half days. If teachers followed the long courses, they had 10 twilight sessions per module in the university. Each session consisted of two and a half-hour, that is 25 hours altogether per module. In addition, 25 more hours were allocated for intensive reading and studying for a total of 50 hours study time. Teachers had to write an assignment that had to be completed in about 4 weeks at the end of the module (C). In the LC, on the other hand, a formal type of INSET was offered at M A level.

Brochures also revealed that the UDE offered modular award bearing courses for teachers with no distinction of phase (e.g. diploma, certificate, or Master degrees). It worked both in and out of the university, e.g. short-courses in TCs or schools, mostly for local teachers. MA courses, on the other hand, occurred only in the university setting and were for both locals and overseas students (H).

In line with the Review of the Literature, the focus of INSET in the UDE was given, in the main, to topic or school/individual development. A day course was oriented to particular subjects, e.g., science for middle teachers, while longer ones would focus on broader issues such as methodology, curriculum and assessment. It was very wide ranging, where the concept of pathway lent itself to keeping coherence in the module structure(C) over time, but teachers could usually move between different topics. Courses were diverse in content covered and were run for different phases of education, e.g. primary and secondary subject modules, etc. Some others were related to fields such as special education needs psychological matters, etc. Longer courses dealt with development and would have an individual and whole school focus. But, on the whole, the focus was rather more given to individuals' development than whole schools' (C). In the LC, the training was subject-related due to the nature of the course on offer (i.e., MA).

In the context of evaluation and follow-up, the results differed a bit in the two departments investigated. By way of illustration, there was an effective evaluation procedure in the UDE where all courses were evaluated in a standardised form by the trainees. The analysis covered a whole range of aspects of the courses from advertising, through to organisation, coherence and clarity of sessions, level of interest they generated; library support; and availability of tutors to help with individuals' work. There was an evident appreciation for the courses, with very few exceptions (C). The evaluations were analysed by a statistical service. The results were fed back to the tutors, and, eventually that information was available in the Advanced Studies Office.

The tutors also had a personal professional evaluation profile consisting of 12 evaluation aspects of the course. Every aspect in a 5 scale was related to a departmental and university average, so, every tutor was compared with the average against others in the department and other courses in the university (C). By contrast, there was no evidence of a formal evaluation for the MA courses in the LC, the system being blamed for this lack of systematisation, and formal evaluation in that centre.

In summary, the UDE had a more efficient system of evaluation than the LC. It had a systematic approach to evaluation; an effective management of the information collected from the trainees at the end of the courses; and also fed-back trainers after the analysis of results. However, it seemed to lack (like the LEA1), a thorough procedure for evaluation, one that included the outcomes of the INSET. The purpose of the evaluation was, like in LEA1, limited to finding out whether or not the activity had been effective in terms of teaching practice. This concentrated on the preliminary details, and the course-itself. The emphasis was only given to 'see how the clients/consumers felt about the course finishing, whether they had benefited, and had been intellectually stimulated' (C) by the course. However, it appears to fail to finish the process of INSET, that is, to see what happened next, both to the teachers and the use of the knowledge delivered. There was no follow-up to the INSET in the UDE, making the process of INSET, incomplete. It was recognised that they only had an indirect notion of the impact of their courses on the trainees' teaching. In C's words,

*'There is no follow-up to see if they (the trainees) are more effective teachers at school after the course'*

(Subject C).

C, nevertheless, foresaw it happening eventually, probably through the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), which might insist that there is evidence gathered at the end of the courses to see the outcomes.

Similarly, there was no follow up extending to the MA training in the LC courses. The follow-up of effects on practice was partly a neglected area in the INSET provision as this appeared to be seen as an 'optional extra', causing that the ultimate effects of the courses remained unknown as it was stated in the Review of the Literature. Trainers in the courses in both target departments in U1 did not have any particular 'action plan' to follow after the course finished. There was no evidence of the progress that the trainees might have had over time, along with the potential obstacles and proposed strategies for overcoming them. As in LEA 1, there was no perceived



way that the University INSET-providers could legally measure the subsequent performance of the trainees in their schools. Therefore, a gap was detected between the Literature content and what actually happened (s) in U1 (universities).

The Review of the Literature promotes the view that a follow-up session should be arranged, at which teachers ought to be required, for instance, to describe progress to date. Such a session might also end up being useful for the discussion of the next stage in the process of the outcomes, namely, change. But, to do that, a kind of partnership among providers, and/with schools would have to exist/be strong. This was almost unthinkable in the NE because, as was mentioned above, the Universities, LC, and LEAs, etc. saw each other as rivals in the provision of INSET. As pointed out by one of the interviewees,

*‘...They (the LEAs) are competing to some extent for business with HE institutions in the region and with other providers’*

(Subject C).

Some of the courses offered to schools by the UDE were unique, exclusive, and not offered by other providers, and vice-versa.

Formal courses in the UDE would be taught ideally in the university settings, for social, intellectual support, practical purposes; facilities (e.g. library and resources) access to staff, etc. Above all, because ‘it got the trainees into contact with others of other schools’ (C). Shorter courses, on the other hand, were preferred at the teachers’ centre or school themselves for convenience. In turn, the LC courses were only taught in site.

In an ideal form of INSET, the most important factor might be that there would be a range of short and long courses (award and non-award ones) and modules to suit different types of needs (C); covering a variety of topics and educational phases...(e.g. half a year). This type of INSET would have major impact on the teachers’ development; and would give them time for reflection. Besides, teachers would be able to take advantage of 10 and a half sessions with topics of greater depth. However, C was aware that ‘there was a long way further to go with such courses’ (C). H did not particularly refer to any ideal form of INSET for award-bearing courses.

In short, an obvious difference in scale, policies, foci and modes (see 3.4 above) between the INSET offered by the UDE and the LC was identified. The UDE covering and impact of the courses were broader, compared to the small-scale offered by the LC. The UDE was also more elaborated, well organised, and better oriented than the LC. MA courses seemed to be working

satisfactorily in the LC, however. On the other hand, both departments lacked an efficient and thorough method for evaluation and follow up of INSET courses. Systematisation was lacking in the LC for evaluation as only a primitive oral consultation to the trainees was being done at the sample time. Finally, despite good organisation and management of INSET in the UDE, longer courses with greater depth would be welcome in future.

Having given two of the variations of the major providers of INSET in the NE, namely, the LEAs and HEI, a third major provider comes into the picture of INSET and will be the object of discussion next, that is, the school itself (see also 4.4 below).

### **4.2.3 SCHOOLS (SCHOOL-BASED INSET) IN THE NE**

The interview technique appears to confirm the theory derived from the Review of the Literature, about the increasing autonomy of schools through the LMS scheme. Schools are able to make a great number of decisions themselves upon their spending, and have the prospect of deciding on the provision of inspection and In-service training for teachers, whether in-house or bought in (B mode in 3.4). Their efforts at providing INSET, however, seem to be beset by problems of resources and quality in the overall training of teachers. Part of the above is illustrated by the particular case of a LEA1 school.

#### **A Secondary School in the NE**

A secondary school of LEA1 was chosen to gain an overview and investigate how this school was doing in practice, particularly when it had an in-house provision of INSET.

Interviews and observation were selected as strategies of research. Also, a variety of sources such as prospectuses, leaflet, and brochures were used for the purpose of broadening the data collection. Information was provided in the school by two members of the senior and middle management, that is, a deputy (Subject E) and the Head of the MFL department (Subject F) (see Fig. 8 above). They were encouraged to talk about the provision of INSET within the school, given their direct and full involvement in its provision at the time of this research. A description of their professional lives precedes their accounts.

#### **Interviewees' Profiles**

**SUBJECT E:** E was one of the deputy head teachers of the school, and formed part of the Science department staff. He had been in charge of the overall INSET in the school along with the staff development committee for about seven years, and was also the budget holder of the



school. To do this, he had had no special training at all, but learned as he worked along, starting, as he said, 'from a very low base'. At the time of writing this chapter, he was already enjoying retirement.

**SUBJECT F:** Fig. 8 shows above that subject F majored in French and Spanish in his initial degree. He was the Head of the MFL department, and had been in that position for some six years. As specified in the description of his job, he was in charge of the INSET activity in his department. He had to identify any INSET needs and to provide them if possible. E and F revealed what follows:

### **The School**

According to the interviews and documents, this school was under the jurisdiction of the LEA (LEA1) in the NE. In 1995-1996, it was one of the two most effective schools among 47 LEAs and 1,000 schools in the region. It was awarded the 24th place nationally among the 100 top schools in the UK. The outstanding scores in the GCSE exams in 1995, large number of sixth form students, and its growth over the years were some of the reasons for its success. In 1996, it had 1,031 pupils ages 11 to 19; 60 teaching staff; and a managerial team consisting of: 12 Foundation Governors; 1 Head teacher/Governor; 4 Local Education Authority Governors; 2 Parent Governors; 2 Teacher Governors; 1 Deputy head; 10 Heads of department. The target for the following three years was 200 sixth form pupils (The Annual Report to Parents, 1994-95).

According to the 1995-1996 School Annual Report, the school enjoyed a very good financial situation. The document disclosed that it finished the academic year 1995 with a surplus of £64,151 (3% of its income), despite the £8,272 deducted by way of claw-back because it had 16 less pupils than predicted (1 more than allowed by the LEA). The net funding per capita by 1995-96 was of £1931, (2,260, national average for 1996). This was then a successful and happy time for the school academically and financially speaking. Nonetheless, financial problems were feared ahead owing to cuts in the Education budget amounting to over 10 % for the following three years (1996-1999).

One outstanding factor of effectiveness appeared to be the self-provision of INSET during the 5 training days.

### **INSET in the School (SBI)**

Some discrepancies arose from the interview and observation techniques concerning the organisation and management of INSET in the school.

In line with the Literature Review, the deputy was in charge of the planning and organisation of school-based INSET, and could also provide the INSET himself, as confirmed by the observation technique. INSET could alternatively be the responsibility of somebody else in the school; or the deputy could also bring in somebody from outside to deliver it. According to the deputy, he was helped by a special committee in the administration of INSET, their first consideration being the School Development plan, its targets and aims (E). The HoD (F) partly contradicted this statement, arguing that

*‘At the moment (1996) the school does not have any policies to INSET. The school is just trying to formulate the policy nowadays... INSET occurs mainly in response to a need when it is identified, but there is no prior planning’*

(Subject F).

## **The 5 training days**

Interviews and observation confirmed the theory that ordinarily at least 5 training days have to be provided for INSET as part of an agreement with the unions made in about 1992. However, the length of time, and foci of the sessions varied and might be used for different purposes, as it was observed by the present writer, and contended by the HoD when he expressed...

*‘...Teachers are very busy people and so, they overwork and are always looking for opportunities to do it, and the opportunities occur when there are no students at school...’*

(Subject F).

The above seems to suggest that the day training or part of it could be well used by the teachers to up-date their school's work. On the other hand, the 5 training days in the school appeared to have raised some mixed-feelings among senior managers, in terms of advantages and disadvantages. For the deputy (E), the 5 days were very flexible and a reasonable way of doing INSET, yet, he recognised them as insufficient given the many changes taking place in the curriculum, examinations, etc. In practice, there were only 3 days training, the 2 remaining days being converted into 4 to 6 twilight sessions of 2 to 3 hours in the evening. This is because, firstly, the staff did not want to lose holidays, and secondly, pupils had to be at school for some 190 days a year, and teachers for some 195. Weekends were not usually imposed on teachers for INSET, but 'directed time' was; that is to say, staff could be "as to work" 2.065 hours (less than 195 days), so the Head could actually impose twilight sessions if he considered it relevant.



Provided teachers did not work more than 2.065 hours, they were obliged to attend the sessions. This scheme seemed to operate in many other schools in the UK as well.

Within the analysis of the SBI provision, three main tensions arose: 1) the use of training days, 2), the provision of the INSET, and 3), the fulfilling of the teachers' needs.

The observation technique showed that, as one of the 14 forms falling into the category of INSET/CPD, a training day (not twilight sessions) might 'rightly' turn into a two hours meeting for decision making (on disciplinary procedures). Thus the training days may well be used for purposes others than the teachers' CPD, e.g. school development. This finding was also arrived at in a survey carried out with teachers by the TTA and published in the TES journal. One of the article's findings was that,

*'While 87% of the heads said all 5 days were used for professional development, only 37% of teachers concurred'*

(Mahoney, T., in TES, May 10, 1996:11)

In support of what was stated in the Review of the Literature, the school bought INSET from the LEAs through LMS. When a trainer was bought in, the service was considered cheap (about £100), compared to the external service given to individuals, which was far more expensive (E). Since this school in the NE had no direct partnership with the universities or any agency, they had to pay in full or partially for the services they bought in. They did not buy INSET from UDEs because in the HoD's opinion (F), universities did not offer the range of service that the school needed. It was a relatively new situation by then (1995-96) that the UDE looked for work outside the faculties. That was 'an area they were just entering' (F).

Tensions between the teachers and institution's needs were then confirmed. Given the national and local pressures of the moment, school priorities and a whole-school approach prevailed over individuals' needs. Individual's needs seemed to be filtered out by the senior management in the school, probably because they were considered as of lower priority than whole school or functional groups. The implication was that individual's needs seemed to be neither fully serviced in-house nor by LEAs or by a national approach. Due to the approach of the school to meet the National Curriculum prescriptions, the middle (F) and senior managers' interpretation (E) of, and focus of INSET varied. While the former favoured a subject-orientated approach, the deputy went for assessment or other issues. A possible lack of determination from HoDs and teachers to negotiate the INSET might be obstructing the balance of its provision as well.

It was also disclosed that the type of INSET delivered in this school depended upon those involved in its planning (e.g. HoDs, Deputies). In this case, the LEAs were the (only) providers of external input (though are considered central providers). A top-down (T) strategy at local level was attributed as a result of the strong national influence on the focus of INSET on NC, and LMS. LEA-based INSET emphasised on NC, and state exams (e.g. GCSE), given the changes occurred during the last decade. The problem was that given the workload on these, many other areas of interest might be neglected.

In general terms, the HoD's evaluation was that SBI was not very successful. His suggestion was that it was not being delivered by the right person in the school, namely, the deputy and that input from outside providers was needed, success depending largely upon the competence of the trainer who came to deliver the INSET. In his own words:

*'I think, no, they (the teachers) do not accept the type of INSET delivered by the school. I think they feel that INSET delivered by outside agencies, is particularly delivered by people who are perhaps in touch with the teaching situation, the classroom'*

(Subject F).

There was not an evaluation procedure for the SBI as to confirm the latter. Yet, the deputy recognised that 'this is the weakness in the system...trying to evaluate how useful INSET is, is something which we look at and which is daily looked at the departmental level of what effect does INSET seem to have...' (E). E, of course, referred to general INSET rather than to the INSET he provided on site.

Considering the directness and advantages of the observation's technique described in Chapters 3, evaluation of a school-training day was done by the present writer and a second observer.

### **Observation of a training day at school (see instrument in App. A)**

The purpose of the structured, non-participant observation was basically to examine/evaluate a SBI day. Issues considered involved: the purpose, focus, process, events, utility of the INSET, and situations occurring during a training day held at the school. It also gathered information from group and individual behaviours. The observation used an instrument consisting of a checklist, involving 8 categories in response to 8 main questions

- 1) What was the topic of the INSET session? 2) What were the purposes of the INSET session?
- 3) Who were the organiser, provider and deliverer of INSET? 4) What was the process followed



during the session? 5) What was the teachers' attitude during the session? 6) What was the input of the INSET to the teachers' professional development; 7) What was its utility? and 8) Were the teachers' needs considered at a starting point when the INSET was planned ?

The day training was organised and delivered by the deputy with subsequent departmental meetings that were considered by the deputy as a follow-up to the main session. The meeting took the form of a two hours meeting (one of the activities falling into the category of INSET) and used plenary sessions, group work discussion reporting, and decision taking.

By and large, the discussion was focused on school development issues (budget, monitoring), but above all, on discipline. The debate centred on tactics for changing pupils' behaviour, since the lack of discipline in and outside the classrooms was turning intolerable. As an effective school, the consensus was then reached on how to reward/punish pupils, and the point was made about avoiding losing face with the public, because of the recurrent exclusion of some pupils from school. Detentions were seen as counter-productive due possibly to their continuous use and abuse, the alternative being to establish a 'reward' system for the best pupils' behaviour and achievement. This would be done in the form of merit certificates, letters of acknowledgement to the parents, public acknowledgement, stamps, crossing merit stamps, etc.

For the researcher, the session was as inadequate for the CPD of teachers. Nonetheless, within the policies on forms of SBI, it is acceptable as activity for a training day. The meeting was well managed by the deputy as chairman, but as leader he seemed to have failed to involve the teachers since the very beginning in the process of INSET, that is, in choosing the topic (T-D model). His position appeared to be that of carrying out a pre-established agenda, without realising the importance of preparing the human resources for the attempted changes which would result from the meeting. He, however, positively exploited and backed up the teams' suggestions during the session, but as an agent of change, he did not seem to act effectively as controller and integrator of resources. He opted in the right direction by initiating the change with the staff involvement, in accordance with the school needs. Nevertheless, the lack of a school development plan (SDP), which included this type of change may well stop him from making effective/further progress, or at least may retard it. Seen this way, the culture of the school was judged to be one of autonomy and dependence. The staff appeared to depend on the semi-management and upon the nature and quality of decisions made by the senior managers. This managerial style might be affecting the culture of shared management between the two parties involved, as the managers managed and legislated for INSET, etc., and the teachers taught and implemented.

The observation technique then gave rise to some important points. Firstly, the general image given during the meeting was that staff (of about 60) had little or nothing to do with the decision about the INSET they were provided with in the school. The senior managers in the school forgot that the quality of INSET lay in the practicality of outcomes and the interest the session might generate in teachers. As a result, the major issue of INSET did not appear to be fully raised in this INSET day, namely, provision according to the perceived teachers' needs but the school's. Secondly, a tension between individuals and institutional needs was detected during the day training. The impression was gained that the school lacked a holistic approach for development planning that included INSET, due precisely to the apparent differences of criterion between managers and teachers. Neither was there a follow-up after the SBI occurred. As F put it

*'There is very little, no, hardly any(follow-up)!; perhaps in the departments when it is a departmental; maybe a little by departmental meetings...subsequently, but at school level no!, hardly any at all'*

(Subject F).

The subsequent departmental meetings that were accounted in the interview by the deputy as follow-up for the school INSET activity were part of the agenda's timetable, not really a follow-up to INSET. As a consequence, the INSET training might be questioned for being incomplete, perhaps inadequate, and its focus/provision monopolised by the senior managers at convenience. This certainly opposed what was stated in the Review of the Literature about INSET being a duty for all involved in it (managers and teachers). Most importantly, perhaps, there was a great deal of evidence in support of the view that SBI days were not being thoroughly used for the purpose of providing teachers with professional development (knowledge and skills), but for school interest and duties instead. This fact calls for some reflection on the planning, organisation and management of SBI, to solve the problem of (miss) diagnosis, provision, and, above all, to avoid the absence of outcomes.

Despite the apparent combination of top-down (T), bottom-up (B) for the identification of needs (see 3.4 & Fig. 7 above) in the school, a tension was perceived between them, giving priority to the former. This lack of balance seemed to derive from the managerial, hierarchical and imposed style prevalent in the school. Accordingly, individual needs did not seem always to be taken into account for the planning of INSET in the school. Instead, the reduction in the role of individuals in the identification of their own needs, and the weakening of departmental power was feared. This occurred despite the apparent devolution of the responsibility for the needs' identification to departments.



On the other hand, the principle was confirmed here that beyond the training days the school had freedom to select the most convenient provider of INSET 'on site' the options being the LEAs, and the Universities, though the latter on a minor scale. This was apparently because: 1) the teachers did not want to spend their time after school studying in twilight sessions; 2) the school did not sponsor them with the tuition fees or secondment very often. Above all, it was due to 3) a perceived overload of work at school. Also, since opinions between senior and middle managers about INSET seemed to differ, it was verified the conception that INSET varies from subject to subject, depending on positions and roles at school. According to the HoD, the SBI was unlikely to be useful, although interesting on occasions, particularly when it directly affected the classroom's situation (F)... but teachers did not always consider it relevant to their particular professional cases. They gave more value to the external agencies delivering INSET, mostly when accreditation was gained. In the interview, the deputy conveniently opposed the bought-in INSET type because teachers would not consider it as relevant...the teachers found the bolt on INSET type more useful because it directly related the work they did in the departments. This was of course, only a manager's opinion.

### **Reflection about the session observed: suggestions to the school**

Teachers' education is more than simply following changes in schooling. It is more about providing means for teachers to develop their professionalism and leadership to get advanced curriculum reforms (Tickle, 1987). This approach did not seem to be taken into account when the planning of INSET occurred in the school. A centralised control of the curriculum seemed to be the priority of the planners of INSET in the school, and the LEA, giving the teachers little participation in the planning of their own training. The school was not necessarily wrong to address INSET towards meeting the government's demands on teachers, but it rather lacked room for other approaches.

Ideally, a school ought to have an elaborated development plan underpinned by good financial planning to meet the teachers' requirements. In this school, effective management for staff development and INSET was not that evident. As a result, some tension between the education of teachers and the development of the school was evident in the training session observation. It appeared unlikely that the school would be looking for the best ways to suit local needs and achieve maximum effectiveness in SBI. As the observation showed (see below), contrary to what was expressed in the Review of the Literature about the purpose of INSET to serve individuals' professional needs, the managers did not seem to balance between these and those of particular relevance to the whole school (Thompson, 1993). They left (as in London and Wales, see Ch. 5) this to other providers (e.g. LEAs, university). Although LMS status gave it control on the INSET

market and helped for better assistance to the teachers' needs, as the budget was there, other priorities were possibly set in the school. The LEAs were aware of the need to give a quality service to schools, as the culture has changed from one of control to that of support (Merrick, N, 1996:10). Improvement would be expected in the near future by, for example, the school taking broader advantage of the support agreement with the LEAs, which might have provided a cheap quality service. A major problem would be if the schools were not interested/prepared to be proactive and effective in teacher training, and more specifically in the development of individuals, as a requirement identified in the Review of the Literature. Some changes would be required in its management arrangements so as: 1) to maintain the status as an effective school; 2) to provide means for development and maintenance support; and above all, 3) to keep a truthful stability and reputation in terms of teachers' on-going education and professional development.

On the other hand, the lack of inclusion of external INSET during the 5 training days appeared to be limiting the variety of the provision (F) and not tapping practical themes (E). There was some urgency for more (specialised) INSET, in order to address the lacking issues, and for a reconciliation of interests in relation to INSET. It was obvious the extent to which senior management was entitled to define the INSET needs for their staff (see T-D model in Figs. 9 above) within the school. The teaching staff seemed to have little influence on defining their own requirements to be included in a development plan, which did not seem to exist at all. This confirmed the typical tensions existing in schools upon INSET management at senior, middle, and teaching staff levels, and indicated the provision as being partly directive and imposed. The attitudes taken by the managers seemed to be underestimating the needs and interests of the staff and not involving them in decision taking. The risk of generalisation of needs could easily lead to a crisis in credibility, and influence values and attendance at the sessions.

INSET as a school policy should be clear in any educational establishment at all levels, and everyone ought to be aware of this together with the staff development policies. There was no evidence of this in the school documents analysed either. An implication of this might well be that the school was failing both to formulate and to disseminate them. It was assumed then that teachers, parents and other staff were not aware of them, as they should be. The school did not appear to display, or at least not in an orthodox form, two of the (eight) factors indispensable to becoming 'effective', at staff development level (Purkey & Smith (1983) in Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991:111). This is, 1) an on-going staff development, and in-service training (sixth in the list); and 2) the LEA and external support (eighth in the list). The impression was that the term effectiveness might be undermining the school's commitment to its staff. This fact is understandable, because if indeed it is true that effectiveness involves self-provision of the INSET



service by the school, it is also true that INSET is meaningless when measuring school effectiveness because

*‘Effectiveness of a school varies along several dimensions, and there are also variations over time’*

(Nuttall, D et al., 1989 In Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991).

A suggestion was then that, perhaps, the school effectiveness criteria were lacking the comprehensiveness required for a practical whole-school strategy. Clearly, the INSET provision at this school was not the best. This leads one to the crucial point that being an effective school does not necessarily imply possessing efficient policies and conditions for staff development and specifically for an in-house provision.

Finally, it was evident in the observation that the management in the school was very effective in issues such as: the ‘control of standards’, in monitoring the work of teachers in terms of the NC, and in assuring that needs were cost-effective, and in accordance to the budget. Nonetheless, in its effort to reach effectiveness, this effective school in the NE of England appeared to be losing objectives for staff development. The SBI focus was being given to general issues such as assessment, the National Curriculum, discipline, etc. However, the school was not thoroughly attending departmental and individual needs. Some of the INSET experiences seemed to have failed to meet teachers’ needs as they appeared to be on ‘the one shot’ type with little evaluation and no support to use the ideas, after the sessions (i.e., follow-up).

In MFL, the situation did not appear to be any different/better than in the rest of departments in this school. The policies for INSET were the same as those for general INSET. However, some aspects would differ, e.g., focus, typology, providers, and to some extent, funding. According to the MFL HoD (F in this research), the European Union was providing some money for cultural exchanges as well, but the administration of this school sometimes did not involve teachers in it, as adequate replacement was difficult to get. When INSET was offered by another country, teachers were allowed to leave school for two weeks at maximum, but particular teachers would be obliged to finance their own visit. Normally, departments or schools would not be able to afford secondments because they would have to get a teacher on a short-term contract, which would be very expensive. High impact was attributed to the University-based INSET, as major provider of INSET for MFL, despite the fact that nobody from school was taking the service at the time of this research. Some reference would also be made to the impact of minor providers in that field, for both foreign and local language teachers, e.g. the Association for Language Learning, and the British Council (BC) Office in the region.

### 4.3 MINOR PROVIDERS OF INSET IN THE NE OF ENGLAND

Minor providers of INSET were represented by: 1) professional associations, 2) private agencies, and 3) individual consultants. Two representatives, one for the Association for Language Learning (D), the other (G) for the British Council (BC) gave their views through the interview technique about INSET in their organisations.

#### **Interviewees' profile (see Fig. 8 above)**

**SUBJECT D:** Subject D majored in English and French. He had been HoD in a secondary school for a good number of years. At the time of this interview, he was the chairman of the Northeast Branch of the National Association of Language Learning (ALL) in England. Among his duties with the ALL, he planned and organised subject-based training for teachers belonging to the association.

**SUBJECT G:** Interview G was a MFL teacher who majored in German and French. Originally he was director of a summer school in England. Thereafter, he got involved with the BC as a language teacher trainer for teachers from abroad, job he had done for 5 years before this interview. As part of his training, he took a short course with the International House, and also followed many teacher training courses 'while in service'. D and G gave testimony of the organisation and management of INSET in the organisations they worked with.

#### **4.3.1 The Association for Language Learning (ALL)**

The Association for Language Learning (ALL) is a national organisation for MFL teachers. It provides some In-service training for its members of about 6,000 in the UK. According to Interview D, the INSET is done nationally, and is directly organised by the national office in Rugby, Warwickshire. Nationally, courses take place in twilight sessions during the weekend but locally during the afternoon or evenings.

In the Northeast branch, there used to be three meetings a year, that is, one per term, in addition to a number of ad hoc meetings all year through. Short courses were mainly planned by the board members around the region, and varied from 2 hours, to a half or a full day.

The training aims at a number of things the LEAs are also aiming at, although the foci vary (D). It is above all a subject-based INSET focusing on methodology, sixth form specific areas, European issues, use of Mass Media, BBC programmes, etc. However, the priority at the time (1996) was



on assessment due to the fact that there would be a new GCSE examination by 1998 for those pupils starting Year 10 in 1996. The INSET courses were very inexpensive (£2 per meeting), though open only to members. The cost of courses was taken from the same contributions and enrolment of members who paid £30 per year.

There was neither a formal evaluation nor a follow-up for this type of INSET. The providers put out an evaluation sheet after the seminars that those attending filled in. Items focused mostly on suggestions and improvement of the activities. For D, the ideal INSET is that at which people come and learn things that they can use in the classroom easily (D).

### **4.3.2 The British Council (BC)**

At the other extreme, G (see Fig. 8 above) stated that the BC courses were run for local and foreign language teachers. These courses are considered as a less formal type of INSET despite bearing awards. Courses were taught mostly during the summer time for primary, secondary, and private language teachers, as well as from universities abroad. A 5 person-team was in charge of the planning and organisation of the INSET, namely: the administrative organiser; two teacher directors of studies, and two teacher trainers. The latter are mostly university teachers, and some freelances.

As G explained, the courses usually last three summer weeks and take place only once a year, commonly in a venue outside the cities. Similarly, each course in Britain has a different focus, e.g. spoken language, proficiency, methodology, etc., according to where it takes place. The trainees come along from all over the world, particularly from Russia, Eastern and Central Europe and Latin America to take the INSET usually during their holiday time. Most of them are sponsored by the BC. Exception is made by those teachers coming from Western Europe e.g., Germany and Poland who are self-supported. The former, normally take a course only once, while the latter might take several courses in different parts of Britain each year. This depends upon individual interests, and the focus of the courses. At the time of this research, intensive courses (25 hours/week) were £1.500 per person. These included social entertainment, trips during the weekends, visits to the theatre, food, and accommodation. It was good value for money according to G.

In these types of less formal INSET the trainers usually anticipate the needs of the teachers. Contents include English through drama; Media; TV, radio, and video. Nevertheless, there is some flexibility as to accommodate the programme to the teachers' needs when necessary. It is

sometimes very difficult for the trainers to fill in gaps between teachers of different continents, as they have different expectations, e.g. methodology, language proficiency, etc.

The BC's course evaluation (like the LEAs' and University-based INSET) is both verbal and paper-based, with anonymous questionnaires administered before the end of the course. The results are usually highly positive and evaluations concentrate mostly on contents of the course. Changes for new courses might include size & length of the courses, organisation of classes, the options people had, as well as the specific subjects to be dealt with.

Finally, it was understood that follow-up is not a common practice in this typology of course either. Excepting a unique case with Medical English for Polish teachers (on the use of a Resource Centre in 1996), there was no more evidence of this. This course was taught by an expert (Subject H in this study) with whom interviewee G would go to Poland to see the outcomes of the INSET, and to find out whether or not the teachers were implementing what they had learnt during the course. Given that this intended follow-up was perceived as unique in its nature (at least in this study), a further interview with Subject G was intended, with no success. Thus the results remain unknown to this researcher.

By and large, this session gave an overview of two minor providers of less formal INSET in MFL (BC, ALL). Given the difference in nature, comparisons among providers did not pretend to show that one system was any better, or worse than other. It reflected instead on how some systems may be more effective and proactive than others in the provision of INSET. Albeit the less formal nature of training, and the different consumers of the INSET, private agencies probably did better than national and regional ones. ALL as an INSET provider for local teachers was effective in some particular instances. It made efforts to keep MFL teachers united, up dated and proactive in skills and subject knowledge. This was achieved despite being an Association with little force, and poor funding. Naturally enough, the BC training had international and broader impact than the ALL. Its infrastructure, management in trade as well as the sponsorship resources seemed advantageous and contributed to its effectiveness. The great effort put into pleasing the consumers with quality and good resources, backed up by its philosophy, policies, finances and political issues governing the programmes paid off in the end with the positive evaluations from the clients. All this seemed to translate into the apparent success of its different courses organised yearly in several parts of the UK.

A space is given next to the teachers in the NE as clients of INSET to give their opinions upon the INSET they were provided with, at national, local and school level.



## **4.4 CLIENTS OF INSET IN THE NORTHEAST**

This part of the chapter concentrates on a cross-section of clients of INSET in the NE of England through a postal questionnaire survey. Semi-structured questionnaires complemented the interviews, observation and documentary techniques. The main task of this multi-method was to collect, process, and integrate data in order to produce consistent information about the secondary teachers' CPD/ INSET in the NE of England.

The teachers basically responded to four main issues: 1) personal background; 2) post-graduate courses followed as part of INSET; 3) recent attendance at any type of INSET; and 4) the particular situation of SBI in the schools they worked at the time of this research.

The questionnaire itself (see schedule in Appendix B) consisted of 15 questions, to answer to the 4 main issues already cited. It was designed with simplicity, clarity of instruction and understandable layout in mind. A space was provided after each question to facilitate free responses and several hints were also given to help respondents make their choices. A good number of questions lent themselves to weighed responses in order to elicit teachers' views, and reasons beyond their personal choices, preferences and priorities upon INSET/CPD. Therefore, the questionnaire stood mostly for the expression of individual clients' views of the service rather than for collective experiences. The majority responded to the survey at the usual work premises, or at the University while on training. It was hoped that the former had not been influenced negatively by the setting. A more neutral and comfortable environment would be difficult to provide for teachers to remain unbiased and to fairly respond to the posed questions. The data, therefore, rely heavily on the individuals' integrity and experience on the field of INSET. Triangulation of methods, co-relations and contrasts of factors were also carried out throughout the analysis of the sample, in support of some hypothesis (3) arising from the results.

### **4.4.1 TEACHERS' BACKGROUND AND INSET**

#### **Questions 1 to 8 (see tables on Appendix B)**

This was a small sample, in which targets were secondary teachers from diverse schools in the NE (see Table 2, App. B). As clients/consumers of INSET they were taking different typologies of courses at the time of this research, e.g., University, LEA, school, as well as subject-associations-

based INSET, or a mixture of these. Altogether, 100 questionnaires were posted with only 42 returns (42%).

## OVERVIEW OF RESULTS

An overview of results was drawn up, after analysing the questions individually or cross-examined with other questions.

This sample made use mostly of experienced graduates of MFL (28/67%), and teachers of other subject areas 13/31% (see Table 2, App B). A bit more than half of the teachers were graduates from university (23/55%), and college (18/43%) (the latter were observed to be mostly those teachers who worked in non-urban (rural) areas of the NE) (see Table 1). Those surveyed mostly held a bachelor (29/44%), and some a PGCE degree qualification (19/29%). Masters degree was held by 12/17%, while a minor 3/5% of the teachers had undertaken higher degrees. It was also disclosed that half of the sample (21), particularly teachers working in the city held more than one initial degree, if compared to the others in the non-urban/rural areas who held only a single qualification (with 2 exceptions).

Some interesting points arose in relation to the post-graduate courses taken by the teachers as part of, INSET: e.g., the nature of degrees taken by teachers; sponsorship; and secondment. As Table 3 (App. B) shows, roughly one third (15/36%) of the 42 sample teachers had attended INSET at some point before the research, or were taking courses at the university as part of INSET during the sample time. They were 7 MFL teachers, and 8 of other subject areas. From those 15 teachers involved in INSET, the majority undertook qualifications at Masters level (9/49%); diplomas and certificates 5/28% (to a least extent at Ed D (3/17%), and PhD (1/6%) level). It was also observed that some had read for more than one qualification.

In correlating teachers' working sites (e.g., urban and non-urban areas), evidence in this research identified a large gap in opportunities for INSET/CPD between them. Teachers in non-urban areas appear to be at a disadvantage, with particular reference to award-bearing courses. The great majority of them (19) had not furthered their professional careers after ITT. Only 3 had followed courses leading to qualifications (e.g., 2 at Masters, and 1 at Diploma level). This appears to prove true the hypothesis that

**Teachers in urban areas benefit more from University-based INSET, than teachers working in non-urban ones (Hypothesis 1).**



Long distances to HEIs might have prevented teachers working in non-urban/rural areas from having as good a professional development through award bearing INSET as desirable. Likewise, management in schools did not seem to think of degrees (etc.) through INSET as a way of helping teachers to improve their skills and raise pupils' standards. The opposite would be ideal, as expressed by a teacher/trainee in the educational magazine *Teaching as a Career* (TASC)

*'... I am coming to the end of my Masters' degree in Education which I'm doing because it will give more depth to my teaching, which will ultimately benefit my pupils'*

(Ashfall, Dennis in TASC, 1994:13)

On the other hand, the principle largely advocated by the TTA in England that 'teachers are expected to take part in further training and professional development as part of their statutory professional duty' (TASC, 1994:18) did not often seem to apply to all teachers in the NE. A good number of them appeared to have little support from LEAs and schools in the form of secondment, or at least release, to get any INSET. In fact, secondment was confirmed as being merely a good memory from the past in the teachers' CPD in this region (and elsewhere). This is broadly illustrated in Table 5 (App. B) where only 3 teachers (20%) out of 15 on INSET were seconded, 2 on part time, and 1 on a full time bases. There was, however, still evidence of some sponsorship for formal INSET in the NE, namely, University-based. A preliminary overview revealed that a good part of the 15 (out of 42 teachers surveyed) undertaking degrees as part of INSET pursued their careers with a full or partial support by the LEA. From those 15, 6/40% were fully supported (2 by the school, 3 by the LEA and 1 by the college). 3/20% were self-supported, while the remaining ones were partially supported either by the school (4/27%) or by the LEA (2/13%) (see Table 4, App. B). Seen in more detail, and correlating sponsors, the picture changes a bit.

Sponsorship was calculated at the equivalent of 9 full time fees altogether, where, in line, both the schools and LEAs rated equally 26.5% as sponsors (see Table 4. App. B). Since only 3/15 subjects (20%) of those taking INSET paid in full for their tuition fees, there was some confirmation that sponsorship for teachers to go on in-service training was still possible in the NE (see Fig. 9 above).

The picture appeared to be even more positive on recent attendance at INSET. This small scale survey concluded that, in all, half (21/50%) the participants in the survey in the NE had attended some type of INSET shortly before the sample time, or that they were engaged in courses at the

time of filling in the questionnaires (see Table 6, App B). Interestingly, those who had recently attended courses had mostly undertaken less formal INSET (the same was true in the other regions of the country), confirming the deputy head's statement in the interview that school did not have much contact with HEIs at the time. One outstanding finding was that the teachers constantly attending courses were those who held more and higher qualifications in the sample. This seems to confirm the view that there was not much contact with university at the time.

Cross-examination of results also concluded an existing large gap between current providers of INSET and the actual preference of teachers for one or other type of INSET. Teachers' major preference was given to the type of INSET provided by the University (16/32%) (see Table 7, App. B), which paradoxically was the lowest provider (2/9%). By contrast, LEAs and schools, as higher providers (6/27%, 4/18%) of the moment, were least in the teachers' preference (12/24%, and 13/26%). This was perhaps because the professional/more formal INSET in the University was an incentive for them to get a qualification, and was possibly more relevant to their daily task. It is important to take also into account that the focus of University-based INSET seems to be less restricted in foci than the other typologies, given that UDEs do not always follow government interests and prescriptions, but tries to meet the needs of all.

In line with what the Review of the Literature maintains, this survey showed that teachers are subject to what the national, local and institutional planners and providers of INSET decide. They have little/no voice in the choice of their own education (CPD) in most of the cases; the typology and contents are dictated from outside, and INSET appears to signify very little in their professional life.

Otherwise, perhaps, more than the half of teachers in this sample (21/50%) would have been on INSET. Half the teachers on INSET undertook INSET for personal satisfaction (30/50%) (see Table 8, App B) while less than half of them did it for professional advancement (25/42%). The opposite would be true in the other regions consulted in the UK, where the main motivator sought to move teachers into CPD was professional advancement, being evident that teachers had goals other than financial gains (0%) in the NE. INSET was, possibly, seen as an achievement motive and not as the only way of attaining success in the respondents' professional life. Thus, monetary incentives were not so important for them. As McClelland put it, 'this (monetary incentive) is actually more effective with people whose achievement drives are relatively weak' (McClelland, 1961 in Everard & Morris, 1990:34).



#### 4.4.2 SCHOOL-BASED INSET

##### Questions 9 to 15 (see Tables App. B)

In this important and last part of analysis of the survey in the NE, teachers answered 7 issues, which included current providers of, frequency of, and attendance at SBI. They were also consulted about: the partnership of their schools with other schools or organisations in the provision of INSET; the focus of the sessions when it was home provided; the implications of the foci for the classroom (especially when it dealt with methodology); and whether or not SBI addressed their needs.

The Review of the Literature was confirmed here about a great responsibility being given to schools (under LMS) to be involved more in depth both as self-providers of their own training, and with the LEAs in the teachers' CPD. As the Secretary of State pointed out some time ago

*'Individual schools now have a greater involvement in the employment and the In-service development of teachers. LEAs continue to have responsibility for these schools -primary, secondary and special - which decide not to opt out of Local Authority control, including overseeing subjects development within their authorities, providing links with schools and helping to manage and organise In-service training'*

(Secretary of State in TASC, 1994:16).

As the results showed in this small-scale survey in the NE, 32/46% of the surveyees' schools had a self-provision of INSET with some central input from the LEAs (22/31%), and a minor proportion from the university(9/13%) (2/9% as provider of formal INSET). Two major reasons for the latter, as identified in this survey, were: firstly, that out-reach courses were not profitable for the University because the services seemed to be very expensive when delivered away from its own setting. It apparently implied a lot of work and effort from the UDE's trainers when the service was bought-in by schools. The same view was shared in other regions of the UK. Secondly, the university was not interested at the time in selling its services away. Its philosophy was, on the contrary, to attract teachers to its own classrooms, and, to offer quality control. In line with the Review of the Literature, the University was competing with the LEAs in the market for the concept of INSET.

Findings also disclosed that schools' departments were not very much involved in INSET given that, apparently, senior management did not allow them to do so. Departments had no major decision on the teachers' CPD, as this right confirmed to be undermined by whole-school policies.

The provision of subject-related INSET was being partly neglected in the schools, even though it was the departments' role to look for it. As a result, the focus of SBI was concluded to depend largely on those involved in its planning, the funding, as well as on the number of occasions planned for external provision. In turn, the latter depends upon partnership of schools with other providers which in fact scored poorly (9/21%)(see Table 12, App. B) in this survey. The implication of this is that the training focused mostly on whole school issues (43/63%) (see Table 13, App. B), giving the SBI bolt-on status. A hypothesis derived from this is that

**'Most schools stand on their own in the provision of SBI' (Hypothesis 2)**

The key driver behind this fact is that schools do not bring external speakers to the INSET sessions (as was evidenced by the observation technique as well) because they are considered to be costly and apparently because the talks may be sometimes irrelevant to the daily work of the teachers. Other argument behind this monopoly of INSET by the schools is that partnership and external provision is ultimately unnecessary as the school is self-sufficient. These comments reflect very narrow views of some managers upon the valuable input that external providers and partners can bring into schools. Interestingly, this view appears to form part of the culture and philosophy of being *effective schools*, the opposite being true for *school improvement*.

This finding also corroborated by the interview and observation techniques quite matches the Review of the Literature. The worrying side of this finding is that if schools were free to administer the devolved funds from LEAs at their own pace, SBI might be receiving very little of them. The self-sufficiency of schools in the provision of their own INSET was verified by nearly half of the participants in this survey (32/46%). This might be detrimental for schools in the NE, as they do not seem to provide the teaching staff with variety of INSET in the form of new faces, that is, HE, subject associations', etc. speakers. This deficiency in the system might well lead to further inadequacy in the provision of INSET at school level, due to the narrow foci they offer. As an example, a subject-related methodology, which was seen by 30/71% of the respondents of the survey as having high implications in the classroom, was rarely met in practice. Only 11/16% of the surveyed recognised having this provision in practice.

Training on methodology was important for some of the teachers, among other reasons, because, as quoted from the questionnaires: '...it is absorbed into (S1 NE), and gain a wider repertoire of teaching techniques' style (S26 NE). It allows teachers to try out methods, ideas (S31 NE), as well as to appreciate the circumstances in which would be appropriate (S34 NE). The change in teaching methods increases teachers' enthusiasm and brings variety in the classroom (S2 NE). It makes the teachers reflective on their daily work in the classroom, and on their current methods,



perhaps modifying these (S27 NE) and providing better preparation of materials' (S10, 18 NE). INSET focusing on methodology also provides 'strategies to deal with problem pupils and classes, as well as trains teachers in how to cope with pupils with learning difficulties' (S22 NE). This is not always the case for every body (8/19%) of course. For some, the implications of methodology just depend 'on what is the INSET about' (S4 NE) nothing more, nothing less.

It follows that schools ought to provide SBI sessions on methodology as a strategy to promote higher motivation and attendance at INSET (especially beyond the 5 training days). It would help somehow convince consumers/clients that planners of INSET at national and local levels are genuinely interested in pleasing and equipping them with effective tools to tackle low standards in the profession. INSET of this kind, would also be considered by trainers as a promoter of effective teaching training, and consumers would buy what they felt fulfilled their needs and aspirations. This would match and validate the principle supported by the TTA and largely defended by its recent/former Chief Executive (Anthea Millet) (changed in December 1999) of promoting choice, diversity, efficiency and accountability, because ultimately, pleasing the consumers will

***'...Help secure a better focused system of professional development for teachers, increase the value for money obtained from public investment in training, and ensure that professional development has a more direct impact on raising standards of pupils' performance'***

(Millet, A, TTA, 1996: 28).

A due task by the managers of SBI ought to be to fill the gap between SBI provision and the teachers' preferences and interest, so as to assure quality and more motivation for attendance. The SBI would also be more effective if the provision were given more frequently. In this survey, half the clients (21/51%) maintained that SBI occurred on only the five compulsory training days, which most of the teachers saw as not sufficient (see Table 10, App. B), above all for those who did/do not periodically take external INSET either.

The fact that sessions beyond the training days were compulsory for only 10/24% of the sampled teachers (see Table 11, App. B), is a clear indication of the little importance schools give to this additional provision. But again, additional session are a commitment mostly for those teachers who have been trained abroad as a way to up-date them in school affairs, developments and changes.

A remaining question in this analysis is whether or not SBI was meeting all the teachers' needs in the NE of England.

Teachers' needs

Meeting staff's training needs has been historically seen as a difficulty in any system on earth. The educational systems, in particular, have to make enormous efforts to try and meet training needs, given that education is the base of any society, and as such it evolves continually.

MEETING TEACHERS' NEEDS IN THE NE

INSET Preferences		Implicats Of focus on Methodolg		Partnership		Recent Attendance At INSET		Providers of INSET		Providers of SBI		SBI Meeting Needs	
SBI	% 13/26	Y	% 30/71	% Y	% 9/21	Y	% 21/50	LEA	% 16/27	LEA	% 22/31	YES	% 22/62
LEA	12/22	N	8/19	N	28/67	N	12/29	SCH	4/18	SCH	32/46	NO	15/36
UNI.	16/32	NR	4/10	NR	3/7	NA	9/21	UNI.	2/9	UNI	9/13	NR	1/2

Fig. 10 Source: Other Tables in Appendix B (Data collected in the NE of England).

It was particularly interesting to consider this issue in the NE, given the multiple tensions it presented with other issues already contemplated in the chapter, namely: 1) lack of opportunities for INSET; 2) little variety; 3) mismatch between provision and preferences; 4) a lack of partnership of schools with, and among providers; along with 5) apparent mismanagement of INSET.

Recapping previous issues, the picture of SBI in the NE was found to have a bolt-on system with a rather scarce participation of other providers, i.e. LEAs, HEI (31/44% altogether). Factors such as: 1) a rare provision on methodology (11/16%), an issue that by contrast proved to have large implications for the classrooms, according to 30/71% of the teachers; 2) the little importance given to the major preference of teachers' INSET (e.g. University 16/32%) in the planning, and much more, seemed to be undermining the importance and effectiveness of SBI (at least in this small-scale survey). In spite of this, 26/62% of those surveyed still thought that SBI was meeting their needs (see Table 15, App. B). Cross-examination of information was intended as to find out the reason behind the existing gap between needs being met in the context of SBI (62%) (see Fig. 10 above), and the poor rating of SBI in the teachers' preferences (26%) (see Fig. 10 above). Since only 9 supported responses to YES/NO questions (on needs meeting, Q 15) throughout the survey, generalisation on this finding was not possible. The teachers' views, as quoted from the questionnaires, would be only an indication of whether or not the INSET met their needs but not (for example) to what extent (the questionnaire did not ask this either). Some were of the view that at least



*'...There is an attempt to take into account teachers' needs' (Subject 4, NE),  
 'Bids are made at the beginning of the year from departments, individuals, and  
 members of staff' (S10 NE); 'Discussion and often planning takes place in school  
 prior to the training. The school does try to address pertinent issues' (S14 NE).  
 Besides 'Many INSET sessions are delivered by our own Senior Management  
 and if they weren't appropriate we'd tell them' (S 23, NE)*

By contrast, some of the teachers' opinions implied that

*'INSET is a general response to general issues' (S1 NE); 'Problems faced by  
 teachers are too varied to be addressed... Often INSET is irrelevant to present  
 day problems' (S6 NE). 'SBI usually concerns general trends/policy and is not  
 specific enough to teachers' needs'(S5 NE) 'Random choices - INSET is not well  
 co-ordinated'(S20 NE). 'I think they (the senior managers of INSET in school)  
 think of the needs of the running of the school or of the pupils' needs' (S2 NE);*

The fact that only 9/42 of the respondents supported their answers may well indicate two things: one, that the remaining teachers might have just given random answers; or two, that they decided not to engage in explanations probably for reasons of loyalty to their schools.

In all, it has been concluded that the main providers of SBI in the NE of England were the schools themselves (32/46%) with some (little) input from the LEAs (22/31%) and a minor input from the University (9/13%) (see Table 11 above). SBI was provided mostly on training days (21/51%) making the provision insufficient, although some schemes provided it more frequently (14/33%). Attendance at the SBI was compulsory beyond training days for some part of the teachers (10/24%), chiefly for those who had not attended INSET recently, or were trained overseas.

Significantly, most of the schools did not work in partnership with other providers (28/67%) of INSET. This may indicate that schools, as effective schools, were self-sufficient in the provision. However, this allows questioning about its quality and to some extent its effectiveness in the absence of external input. The direct consequence of this monopoly was that the main foci of SBI were school issues (e.g. school improvement/effectiveness according to the LEAs), with some subsequent neglect of subject specific input and methodology. Most of the teachers (30/71%) preferred subject-related INSET, as well as methodology, due to the direct implications it has for their classrooms. Since the schools were unable to provide these foci, partnership with others (i.e. University, and/or subject-associations), seemed imperative. Apart from giving teaching capacity to the trainees, different foci of SBI would effect higher achievements by pupils as well. This was not seen, however, as easy to attain because it was not mandatory that SBI had to involve other providers and specific foci. The paradox emerged that more than half the sampled teachers (26/62%) viewed SBI as meeting their needs. This may well imply that teachers were unaware of their own needs, or that infrequent attendance to other typologies of INSET seemed not to be a problem in a teacher's busy professional live. It might finally imply that school,

university and LEA's role distribution in the provision of INSET was working effectively in the NE (as was also the case in London and Cardiff).

#### **4.5 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE FIELD WORK IN THE NE**

Some gaps, overlaps and contradictions were observed through the analysis of the questionnaires in the NE of England. Despite the small-scale size of the survey, some insight into and understanding of the teachers' views upon INSET was given. Overall, the following may have arisen.

1) Most, if not all the teachers in the survey held graduate status and had a range of qualifications varying from Bachelor, to PhD degrees. However, it could not be said that many of the practitioners surveyed had undertaken formal INSET often or at least recently before/during the sample time in the NE. Neither did they appear to be much encouraged by their schools to attend INSET other than home provided. Positively, however, it was noticed that teachers with higher and more qualifications appeared to be more motivated and attended formal and less formal INSET more frequently than the others. 2) A strong national influence on the focus of INSET was concluded from two main factors, one, the NC, and two, the LMS. The NC as a compulsory focus of training, used a top-down (T) strategy at local and national levels. As a result, teachers seemed to be challenged by recent/frequent changes in policy. They did not seem to have a major influence over their own CPD, neither did they enjoy some of the approaches to career development and In-service education.

3) LEA-based INSET penetration in secondary schools in the region proved to be very limited, and the provision insufficient, if compared to the role it ought to perform in the CPD of teachers. Probably as a reaction, University based INSET was preferred by a vast majority of clients of INSET. 4) Many of the teachers were observed to have low motivation to go on INSET, to judge by the low rating of attendance at all level. Incentives for the teachers' professional career were considered scarce all the way through, i.e. sponsorship, secondment, and financial gains out of INSET. Accordingly, teachers mostly attended INSET for personal satisfaction and to a least extent for professional advancement (the reverse was true in other regions investigated in UK), rather than for financial gains. 5) A significant number of teachers in this sample (21/50%) remained untouched by INSET, due to the following apparent facts: individuals had little decision-power over the INSET that they preferred, and no control about its quality. There did not seem to



exist unification of criteria among providers and clients/consumers over the provision, foci of INSET. INSET was not always related to the teachers' and pupils' needs, but the schools'. As a result INSET did not appear to have a real value in the eyes of the clients/consumers. 6) Saying this, it appears as if the vast majority of them did not seem to be very demanding about provision, neither did they show particular interest in furthering their professional careers through INSET. Few opportunities were given for teachers to go on training, thus it seems true here Tickle's allegation that it is an irony that

*'The greater teachers' professionalism is being demanded at the same time as opportunities to exercise professional participation are being removed'*

(Tickle, L., 1987:18,19).

7) On the other hand, SBI was possibly not giving teachers an adequate provision of INSET due to little variety and bias in the foci, the absence of professional input from outside providers, etc. Paradoxically, most of the respondents recognised high value in it, and considered that it was meeting their needs. 8) Finally, more variety of INSET was considered as necessary (e.g., in MFL) in the NE so as to motivate more teachers to take external training, particularly for courses leading to awards. Also, more involvement of subject associations as well as private agencies in the planning and provision of INSET at national, local as well as at school levels was found to be crucial to the CPD of teachers.

Chapter 5 will consider INSET in other regions of the UK's mainland (e.g., England, and Wales), trying to keep a similar structure to this chapter.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

# **PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM: 2**

## **1. LONDON**

## **2. THE NORTHWEST OF ENGLAND: MANCHESTER AND LIVERPOOL**

## **3. THE MIDLANDS: BIRMINGHAM**

## **4. WALES: CARDIFF AND SWANSEA**

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### **5.0 Preamble**

This chapter, in a way similar to chapter 4, examines the aims of the study (through the first research question), broadening the picture of INSET and ensuring that initial findings from the Northeast of England might be given perspective within it. The research is carried out in four different parts of the UK (England, and Wales (not Scotland)), each of which is treated as a separate case.

This study is done through a multi-method approach consisting of documentary analysis, interviews with providers and questionnaires with clients of INSET (when available). Therefore, the views of the different participants in the INSET process shed light upon aspects of policy and practice throughout. This helps to establish the situation of INSET in several areas of the UK, to identify similarities/differences occurring and to relate these to the Review of the Literature and Chapter 4. The chapter is consequently divided into four essential parts namely: 1. London, 2. The Northwest (Manchester and Liverpool); 3: the Midlands (Birmingham); along with 4: Wales (Cardiff and Swansea). As in Chapter 4, each part is sub-divided into two sections, namely: providers, and clients of INSET, excepting part 3 upon Birmingham where clients' data collection was not possible. Participants in the interviews and questionnaires are identified, as in Chapter 4, by a letter (from I to S) so that, anonymity is kept and cross-reference can be more easily made. For the same reasons, LEAs and Universities are identified as in Chapter 4 with a number (e.g. L3, U3, etc.). Lengthy transcripts of interviews and questionnaires are not fully presented here as they would make the chapter unwieldy, but main ideas are taken instead. Quotations made both from interviews and questionnaires, nevertheless, highlight the issues in question, and help balance the research with a credible argument.



5.1 LONDON

5.1.1 MAJOR PROVIDER OF INSET

Two university interviewees in a university (U2) responded to semi-structured interviews on issues having to do with their status, the role they played in the planning, management and organisation of INSET in their respective departments.

Interviewees' Profiles

Information was provided by two members of the senior and middle management of two departments in U2 as providers of INSET. They were the director of INSET (Subject I), and a teacher trainer of MLs (Subject J). They both were fully involved in the provision of INSET at the time of this research, i.e. 1996-1997 (see Fig. 11 below).

SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWEES' PROFILES IN LONDON

Subject	Major area	Teaching experience. (In years)	Role	Experince. in INSET (In years)	Training prior to this role	Time of interv. (Inmins)	Year of Sampling
I (U2 in London)	All subjects	18 years	-Teacher trainer	-IT trainer in New Zealand, -Head teach. -Advisory teacher in an LEA -Teach trainer for 10 years in U2	-none, learnt by doing it	45 mins.	1996-97
J (U2 in London)	Languages French	-many years	-Lecturer, -Teacher trainer	-8 years in U2 -many before in LEA	-none, learnt from practice	1h.20'	1996-97
Total						2hs, 5 mins	

Fig. 11

**SUBJECT I:** As Fig. 11 illustrates above, Subject I was initially a primary teacher specialising in all subject areas. Thereafter he moved to New Zealand whereby he was both an Initial and an In-service teacher trainer. Back in England after some time, he became an advisory teacher working alongside teachers in the classroom and/or running INSET courses. Eventually he was appointed Director of the CPD Centre in U2 in London, thus finally becoming an INSET trainer in the Department of Education.

**SUBJECT J:** J majored in French and had been a teacher trainer for some 8 years. Thereafter, she became a Language adviser for a LEA where part of her duties was to organise INSET for

teachers. At the time of this interview, she was a lecturer in the Academic Group of Languages in Education in U2.

Cross-examination of the interviewees' accounts with documentary information, e.g., leaflets and prospectuses, revealed the accounts that follow.

## INSET in U2

The INSET Department (INDE) as many others in U2 specialised in professional INSET for secondary teachers in London (I). The office was run by a member of the administration and a team consisting of 4 key staff: 2 academic, and 2 administrative. Among their functions, they co-ordinate programmes across the range of departments, and mailed INSET booklets to a large number of schools in the London area. The department-wide work was organised by the INSET Office, with the collaboration from members of staff in specific departments. Subject J helped to co-ordinate and organise INSET across the department and the University.

As in U1 in the NE, the courses in U2 in London were organised in modules and varied in length. Some were sufficiently large as to entitle the trainees to take awards (e.g. Advanced diplomas, MA, etc.), only half the fees being paid by schools, or the individuals paid full fees themselves. Owing to the absence of real partnership between the INDE and the schools, cost of INSET was expensive at the time. Schools had to pay the courses with the money the government had set for priorities, e.g. for related training, a one-day INSET course ranging from £250 to up to £500. Confirming the Review of Literature, schools made their own decisions about INSET, as they managed their own budget for training (LMS) (I). Since teachers were not provided with any secondment SBI was favoured because it was

*'...More a collective experience rather than individuals going away and being trained at a distance with little references to the school'*

(Subject I).

Different from U1 in the NE, U2 INSET included courses run in the LEAs and/or individual schools in London, but there did not exist any records at all in the INSET Department (INDE) to be shown as to prove the large areas covered. I mentioned that, roughly, 31 LEAs at least within the inner and outer London areas, and around 40 to 50 LEAs in the counties combining 3,000 to 4,000 schools, had the opportunity to participate in this department's INSET programmes.



Some mismatch was found in the interest of the government, and what the teachers expected from INSET, the university seeming to be trapped in between. In keeping with the Review of the Literature, the foci of INSET depended on the government's priorities (T mode in 3.4), the courses being designed in that direction. Within this framework, the INDE decided upon what was important for the schools, e.g. OFSTED inspections through the scheme of need's assessment. Nonetheless, the approaches had to change given that the idea of school effectiveness was very strong in England. Therefore, cross checking of interviews and documentary analysis showed that a mixture of areas such as: assessment, subject specific, management, leadership, special needs, bilingualism, etc., were in the variety of INSET courses dictated in the INDE, attendance at the courses depending very much on what the training development plan was.

Teachers' real preference was for workshops and courses focusing on skills, with a practical implication in their methods, subject areas, classrooms and schools. The courses had a higher impact on real practice when they were oriented to skills: e.g. on pedagogy, and teaching methods and approaches (I). With this in mind, the INDE encouraged them to take long courses so as to

*'do investigation or action research to eventually write a report reflecting on the experience, making recommendations, and including implications for their schools'*

(Subject I).

Some tension between school and the teachers' needs would be inevitable. To solve the problem the INDE in U2 firstly recognised subject/management areas as a priority. As maintained,

*'...There was not a total match but a considerable degree of match of what the school needed and what the teachers needed, between the professional development both of the teachers and the school'*

(Subject I).

INSET courses were evaluated following similar procedures as those in U1 in the NE of England, that is, through written questionnaire and verbal feedback with the trainees at the end of the courses. But there was no follow-up directly occurring in the INDE after the courses finished. This procedure was really up to individual departments.

Favourite venues for INSET were the schools. University's trainers valued very much the opportunity to go out and work with the whole staff of a school in a collaborative approach. Whilst teachers liked to go away from schools mostly for the facilities, and the possibility to learn new things and socialise with others. Courses away from schools were categorised as beneficial, although that was not seen as a short-term process because teachers would have to change the practice approaches, values and beliefs first. An ideal INSET would be one with follow-up: 'Teachers going back into the classroom ought to have support for a considerable period of time to implement new ideas and new approaches' (I). This would help make a real impact on children's learning and classroom practice.

The following section examines INSET from the clients' perspective in U2 in London, through a small-scale survey with teachers.

### **5.1.2 CLIENTS OF INSET IN LONDON**

Research in respect of INSET in U2 in London was conducted with secondary teachers. They all completed a fifteen items semi-structured questionnaire, which included the same issues as in the NE (see Ch. 4). Out of 100 posted questionnaires, 63 (63%) were returned. This was a considerable good rate of return, compared to the other targeted regions in the UK where returns were relatively scarce.

## **OVERVIEW OF RESULTS**

### **5.1.2.i TEACHERS' BACKGROUND AND INSET (see Tables 1-15 in App. B)**

An overview of results was drawn up, after analysing the questions individually or cross-checked with others. Findings revealed that the sample in London was made mostly of MFL (35/55 %) and Sciences or Art (24/38 %) University (34/54%) and college (26/41%) graduates (see Tables 1 & 2 in App. B). They held Bachelor degrees (51/58%) and Certificates or Diplomas in Education (19/21%) at the most. Comparatively, Master degrees were held by few teachers in London (8/9%) (NE, 12/17%) before teachers engaged with INSET, or after.

As a whole, only 15/24 % of the (63) teachers in this sample in London had taken post-graduate qualifications as part of INSET (15/36% NE) in university. This percentage represented something below a quarter of the sample and seems to contradict the apparent number of opportunities and choices the teachers are thought to have to further their professional lives in urban/capital cities like London. Along with this, the nature of the INSET courses taken by the



teachers were mostly Certificates and diplomas in Education (8/47%), with only 6/35% Masters degree candidates (9/49%, NE). Assumptions were, initially, a lack of support in the form of sponsorship/secondment in London, though evidence showed otherwise.

Sponsorship for the 15 teachers on professional training in London was calculated at roughly 11/74% altogether (47% NE). This figure differs from the University trainer's statements (Subject I), when he implied that many teachers on training in the University were self-supported. In fact, only 3/15%) were so. This small-scale survey denied also the suggestion that 'teachers did not have any help from the LEAs...' in London, as J would state. The opposite would be true. LEAs gave full sponsorship to 10/67% of the (15) teachers on training (see Table 4 in App. B), while schools sponsored only 2 teachers on 'half' of their fees (2/13%=6.5%) for courses undertaken as part of INSET (see Table 4, App. B).

The above suggested two things: one, that LMS was not governing INSET in schools in London, so, the LEAs administered the funding for INSET. There was no cross-examination of methodologies to confirm this, however. A second suggestion was that the management arrangements for the Development Planning in schools, in cases where they had one, did not include INSET. J's suggestion that teachers could apply for some release or secondment, but that there was no money around (J), was verified as only 2 teachers (2/ 13%) were sponsored and 2 seconded (2/13%) (3/20% NE).

Despite scarce secondment, it was interesting to find that attendance at INSET right before the sample time in London scored quite highly (44/70%) (if compared with the NE (21/50%)) (see Table 6, App. B). Contributing factors for high ratings might have been the full awareness of school managers and LEAs of the necessity for a continuing, and long-term teachers' education to enhance standards in schools. Professional advancement (48/47%) was detected to be a motivator for attendance. In fact 14/30% of the surveyees (2/9% NE) gave the University as the major provider of the INSET they had attended recently. This made London the unique case in this research where the Universities scored higher as providers of INSET, than the LEAs. Equally interesting was the finding that other providers (Others in questionnaire) especially subject associations (MFL, i.e. SCAA, NATHE, Super Service, English and Media Centre), scored second as provider of INSET with 12/26% above the schools (5/11%) and LEAs (3/7%).

The apparent reasons underlying the latter were, firstly, that the LEAs were sponsoring secondary teachers to attend the INSET in the University. They were not actively involved as providers of INSET, but rather as planners, organisers and sponsors. Secondly, and most importantly, there was some evidence to argue that the LEAs in London were basically operating

at a banking role level, and perhaps as brokers of economy of scale. There was some basis in the rumour that LEA's capacity as providers of INSET was diminishing, shifting/delegating it to schools as well. Instead, they were possibly working better as sellers of INSET reducing their roles as quality controllers. But this research neither showed evidence of that, nor was it its main aim.

J's statement in the interview concerning good co-operation and/or partnership between providers of INSET in London, which result in a high rating of attendance at INSET, etc, was verified. Regrettably, teachers' voluntary bias (on providers) did not allow for generalisation of findings. A good number of surveyees (11/23%) did not declare what the provider of the INSET they attended recently before this sample was. The rating in attendance may have been inflated as a result, if one assumes that not all those who declared attendance had done so. This is impossible to prove, in the absence of interviews to compellers of questionnaires. Thus, results on this issue might be misleading and/or not reliable.

Tables 6 & 7 show that teachers preferred University-based INSET (UBI), which was the higher provider (37%/30% respectively) in this survey in London. Preference scored higher than actual provision, which in turn signifies clients' satisfaction (32%/9% respectively in the NE). All this was supported by the teachers' views indicating that the UBI is characterised by its diversity and different foci, the sharing of experiences; expertise; facilities; good dissemination of information through partnership and financial support from LEAs to CPD, etc. As quoted 'University-based INSET usually offers courses in areas in which teachers feel they need some training' (S4 L). Perhaps most importantly, UBI focuses on key issues, which school-based doesn't seem to address, due to paranoia about time' (S53 L). UBI gives teachers the 'opportunity to explore and think about wider issues around subject-specific areas, whole school, and education in general' (S60 L). UBI was also seen as a very good option for teachers, given that the courses were held out of school (S28 L) facilitating the sharing of a wide range of experiences (Ss 50 , 26 L); producing a more conducive learning atmosphere with the use of libraries; allowing teachers to meet colleagues outside work situation (S33 L) e.g., from other schools and institutes (S36 L) etc.. UBI was catalogued by teachers as very much 'focused and theoretical (S25 L), and its research usually underpins delivery (S26 L). Besides, it helps to skip the daily routine at school' (S57 L). This type of INSET enables practitioners to interact with university teachers (S43 L) and other professionals' (S44 L). This also gathers '...a wider cross-section of teachers than INSET in school or borough led' (S61 L).

LEA-based INSET (LBI) courses, were not very much favoured by the teachers (scored the lowest in the teachers' preference, 9/18% against 3/7% as providers) (See Tables 6 & 7, App. B).



Despite low rating, practitioners recognised that this type of INSET propitiates work opportunities to meet/gather with other colleagues and exchange/share ideas (S47/49 L) outside work situation' (S33), and maximises time' (S1), since it 'tends to be more local' (S48). LEA-based INSET also provides a good environment for socialising (S46 L) with colleagues and teachers of different schools. Somebody preferred it as s/he, perhaps

*'...Had no experience with other types of INSET'*

(Subject 37 L).

As a result, some teachers (13/19%) would undertake INSET with 'Others' providers (13/19% preference/2% provision) e.g., private institutions and/or consultants, 'national conference, and professional associations' (S11 L), the Exam Board (S45 L) etc, which deal with topics such as GCSE. This diversity, however, was viewed as 'good and appropriate' (S7 L) because it addressed subject-specific areas. For others, a mixture of INSET was more beneficial given its advantages (S32 L), e.g., variety; different venues; change in the routine as well as in the approaches and attitudes of the practitioners to their teaching (S38 L). Any kind of INSET would be useful (S56 L), their choice depending upon its topic or emphasis' (S24 L). This last statement was highly confirmed by I from U2 in the interview.

### **5.1.2.ii SCHOOL BASED INSET (SBI) in London**

Partnership and collaboration among schools, HEI and LEAs in the administration and provision of INSET was paramount in this survey. This three-element system did not seem to compete with itself but, instead, had a co-operative financial partnership to deal with external INSET. Each party appeared to have a specific function towards a common end, namely: the teachers' CPD. Effective distribution of roles in the provision of INSET proved to be a better strategy, rather than a situation of parties working separately and in competition (as in the NE). This type of arrangements seemed to be ideal to minimise the risk of monopoly of a given typology or focus by only one provider, and especially to avoid using education in wholly serving government and politicians' interests. Also, this system seemed to facilitate quality control in the service, as every party was specialised in one area, i.e, the LEA in the banking role, the University operating mostly as provider of a variety of foci, and schools with a bolt-on INSET addressing whole school issues (effectiveness). Thus some partial denial of subject and pedagogic knowledge might be happening. Many teachers in this sample in London went mostly for short courses (non-formal/less) which provided a subject-specific focus due possibly to work-load at school and a lack of secondment to undertake longer studies (sponsorship scored well). One other important

consideration in this study in London was that checks on schools by OFSTED inspections seemed to be of great influence upon the typology of INSET teachers consumed. This would happen, of course, provided the schools were thoroughly following OFSTED recommendations.

In the United States, for example, many educators (Deming, among others) affirm that inspections are not always considered to improve quality and that these are costly and ineffective (Deming, In Schmoker and Wilson, 1993:11. As Deming argues, these might not allow teachers to establish and work towards their own standards in areas in which they have the expertise. In the UK, the quality control performed by inspectors might well not match current conditions (TES, March, 13, 1998), since policy in education, is not always written by people who are in constant contact with practice. As a result, the Inspector's recommendations might well end up being impractical and /or obsolete. In Deming's philosophy, ideally, INSET ought to be stated for and achieved by the teachers, to feel ownership of their own targets and work towards meeting them. This is in line with the B mode illustrated in 3.4. Seemingly, quality would be better achieved in the classrooms by leaving the teachers in charge of the quality control, assessing their own progress, perhaps, through action research (see 7.7.3). They ought to be taught to perform better individually and to inspect their own work in teams. Not all this seems to occur in the UK where OFSTED and the TTA prescribe the standards, and control targets in curricula, teachers' CPD, and pupils' education.

In London, good planning management, and implementation of policies, together with the existing partnership /collaboration between LEAs, HEI and the schools as providers were found. Finally, the results in London verified the finding in the Review of the Literature (and in the other regions) that SBI has been totally shifted towards schools. Accordingly, it had mostly an in-house service (54/73%), its major strength and high demand being on whole school issues (64/75%), e.g., National Curriculum, OFSTED, planning, etc. This provision was concluded to be not particularly advantageous to the teachers' CPD owing to the unique focus it had, the little variety and the lack of input from outside providers. Consequently, SBI recorded poorly at both, preference (12/17%) and provision levels (5/11%). These results roughly coincide with those in the NE (26%/18% respectively). Due perhaps to the fact that 27/42% had sessions more frequently than the 5 training days, the provision of SBI was regarded by 42/67% of the respondents to the survey as satisfactory and meeting their need, because...*It aimed at resolving issues and problems relevant to the teachers' situation* (S59 L), it is *'always relevant'* (S 9 L) and *'more realistic'* (S16)...*it gives good training on subject areas, school policy* (S 54 L)...



5.2 INSET IN THE NORTHWEST (NW) OF ENGLAND

5.2.1 PROVIDERS

5.2.1.i UNIVERSITY BASED INSET (UBI) IN THE NW

In this small-scale research in the NW, information was elicited from (Subject M) a senior member of the Centre for Continuing Professional Development (CCPD) in a University in Manchester (U3). Also the director of the CPD Unit (Subject L), in the UDE in a University in Liverpool (U4) provided information about his professional career and INSET through the interview technique (see Fig. 12 below). Methodologies in this section include also analysis of documents and questionnaires with clients of the service (teachers).

**Subject L:** L majored in Politics in his first degree. He was initially a school- teacher but eventually became an officer in a LEA where he worked for some 10 years. At the time of this interview he was the Director of the CPD unit in the Department of Education of University 4.

**Subject M:** On the other hand, Subject M was a graduate in Geography (see Fig. 12 below). He was initially a Head teacher and tutor. At the time of this interview (1997) he was a private consultant at the Centre of Continuing Professional Development (CCPD) in the School of Education in U3 in Manchester. He held a managerial position, which job included the identification of teachers' needs, advertising of the courses through the office, and to make arrangements for the courses to be delivered.

SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWEES' PROFILES IN THE NORTHWEST

Subject	Major area	Teach. exper. (in yrs)	Role	Exper. in INSET ( in yrs)	Training prior to this role	Time of interv. ( in ms)	Year of Sample
K LEA in Manchester. (LEA 2)	German and French	-many years until 1984	-Director and Senior Adviser of the IAS in Manchester	-13 years with LEA	-None -learnt by practice	1.20'	1997
L CCPD Liverpool (U4)	Politics	many years	-Director CPD, Dept of Educ.-	-Director , 1 year -LEA, 10 years -School teacher	-Did not mention it	1.h. 20	1997
M (CCPD Manchester (U3)	Geography	many years	-Consult ant	-Tutor -Head teacher -Educational Officer in an LEA -Consultant in the CCPD for 5 years	-3 days training to be a tutor -learnt by doing it	1h.	1997
N LEA3, Liverpool	History	many years	-Senior Inspector in LEA	- Head of Humanities -Curriculum Division.	-long training over years doing part-time courses	1h.	1997

Fig. 12

### **Inset in Universities (U3 & U4)**

The policies for INSET quite coincided in the two universities in question (U3 in Manchester, and U4 in Liverpool). Nevertheless U3 from Manchester seemed to enjoy a richer scheme in terms of number of external consultants and broader covering of INSET than U4 in Liverpool. This was justified by the size of the cities and, by effect, the number of clients of the respective service.

In U3, according to M, the CCPD organised the training with consultants in the University settings or directly in the schools. They hired LEAs' officers to do some of the courses for the day, although this happened very seldom because as in the NE, university and LEAs were more rivals than partners. The CCPD was considered to be the biggest provider of a University Centre in the country. They ran about a hundred courses throughout the year for practising teachers of nursery, primary and secondary schools. M also ran INSET for advisers, inspectors, as well as for school governors and occasionally for parents.

M's & L's common view was that (likewise in other regions investigated) teachers preferred INSET having to do with their jobs, and daily life at schools. However, the focus of INSET was slightly different in the two universities investigated.

In Manchester, the foci were very wide ranging, varying from whole school management through to staff development, and inspection. A lack of balance in the foci was then identified in favour of schools issues. Popular preferences were also on bullying, assessment, curriculum, along with classroom practice in either subject or teaching methodology. Meanwhile, U4 in Liverpool put on courses of about 50 different modalities for more or less 800 teachers. Different from Manchester, U4 courses appeared to have a limited but more balanced mixture of subject and management related foci (L), keeping (unlike other universities so far investigated) records of the CPD of teachers/trainees. This was undertaken *'to challenge teachers to make sense of their professional life (L)*.

For M and L, it was commonly disappointing that many of the schools do not take full advantage of the UBI service. In Liverpool many schools had/ve a negative attitude towards University staff development courses, their main concern being whether or not they had to provide supply cover (L). Since the benefits are not often immediate, the schools tended to take INSET only before inspections. This finding was largely confirmed by the clients of INSET in the survey.

Neither L nor M could be sure about the extent of attendance at INSET. There was some awareness that in Manchester some teachers might never come out to take any INSET, while some others might do so frequently. The CCPD, for example, sent booklets 5 times a year to



about 5,000 schools in the NW. They made all efforts to motivate teachers to attend it, but it was actually up to schools to send the teachers to the training.

Limited sponsorship and secondment, among other factors, prevented some teachers from coming out to take INSET. Supply cover was only given for short-term or for part-time courses. Schools rarely did second year INSET (3/57 subjects in the survey), and if so, individuals usually paid for their fees particularly for long-term courses leading to accreditation. In Greater Manchester many schools would like to take their money out of the LEA, but they left it there for convenience as the packages were cheaper than buying in the service from other providers.

In Liverpool, a good amount of partnership was going on. Within the CPD partnership scheme, U4 worked closely with schools and sometimes with LEAs in the organisation and provision of INSET. The CPD unit in U4 was validated to provide and manage staff development leading to accreditation as part of the staff development agreement, but it was optional. The schools managed the scheme through a co-ordinator and paid the University for the accreditation. They jointly planned the courses and assessed the teachers' work, although it was not an easy task as they did it in combination with the LEAs.

Both universities did assessment of needs through a bottom-up (B) style by means of questionnaires, along with an oral procedure designed to tackle individual needs in Liverpool. Teachers come out and take the training because they want to help the school do its job (L). The argument was that if a teacher is developing, the school is also, therefore, both the school and individual benefited from the training (L). Sometimes the universities in Liverpool customised the training with out-reach courses in schools for small groups. But this was done only when partnership was there. In contrast, U3 in Manchester worked mostly on its own in the provision of INSET. Within a new scheme, schools paid in advance at a discount for a package of 10 (unknown) courses delivered by the university during weekdays. Many schools like to shop around for INSET and 'we (the universities) take advantage of that by offering them a sort of deal that the LEAs do not offer' (M). By the same token, in the Great Manchester area, the courses offered by the LEAs might accredit teachers with M Ed, not through attendance but by writing upon their practical experience in their own schools. This was another form of CPD for secondary teachers.

M's and L's common view was that INSET was highly regarded by the teachers in the NW. In both, Manchester and Liverpool, the course evaluation consisted of questionnaires. U4 was identified as the unique case in this research where the evaluation came in a documentary form systematically filled from the beginning to the end of the course so as to avoid a last minute

activity. They evaluated different aspects of content, presentation, etc., as part of the 'monitoring of the course'. But there was no serious follow-up to the INSET given that it was not the responsibility for the tutor to monitor the INSET. It was, instead, as M put it 'a professional responsibility, but not a factual accountability. U4 in Liverpool was planning to establish that procedure in the near future as 'the government wants them to demonstrate impact (L). According to the interviewees, an ideal INSET ought to get teachers' suggestions, advice, and help in the classroom work (L); allow people with similar problems from other LEAs and schools to talk and to do some planning together in a structured way (M). INSET on a continuous basis would be another ideal form of INSET (L). The implementation of the James Report would be as good, as it would give teachers more specific time to do training and opportunity in normal school time to

*'Actually acquire the knowledge, reflect upon their expertise and their own standards. A specific framework and time would provide teachers the opportunity to reflect and make sense of what they are doing, and where are they going and where do they like to go next'. This should be incorporated into the normal working pattern of In-service training*

(Subject L).

A bolt-on system was not suggested to be a good way of doing it. It needed to be a part of life enduring seriously a national record of achievement. INSET ought to be provided and planned systematically for the individuals' as well as for the schools' benefit (B mode in 3.4). Nonetheless, the actual perception of the managers at schools appeared to be that CPD, particularly that leading to accreditation was non-cost-effective. As L put it, the schools were more interested in management than in the teaching profession (L).

With particular reference to MFLs in U4, there was very little provision of INSET as most of the staff's time was being devoted to the PGCE, and there was not a great deal of demand for CPD, at least, not from secondary teachers. Problems recognised included little/no contact with the University MFL department on the part of school's teachers and LEAs in Liverpool, as well as the lack of a subject-specialist capacity. They expected, however, to develop a better programme for both teachers in the region and postgraduates from overseas in future, as the demand was growing. One major problem appeared to be that since secondary teachers' obsessions were the GCSE and A-level examinations, they took INSET mainly with Examination Boards and LEAs, which provided courses related to the syllabus. The MFL department faced competition with the EXPORT Language Centre (located also in U4 settings) in training teachers as it was subject-based. The centre ran courses 3 times a year with 40 to 60 participants and might lead to accreditation as well (i.e. Masters Degree). There were few people in MFL coming to the



University with managerial aspirations. The priority for them appeared to be the language skill, as Assessment or Methodology were taken with the Examination Board regularly, or with the LEAs which covered those foci as well. This was confirmed by several clients in the survey (see section 5. 2.2, below).

### **5.2.1.ii LEA-BASED INSET (LBI) IN THE NW**

#### **Interviewees' Profile**

**SUBJECT K (LEA2):** As seen in Fig. 12 above, Subject K majored in French and German. He was a teacher until 1984 when he joined the Inspector and Advisory Service (IAS) in Manchester where he worked as its director and senior adviser. In IAS he introduced TRIST (TV related). He was responsible also for GEST, and in 1987 introduced GRIST. From 1987 to 1993, his principal responsibility was the administration of budgets and training. He was part of the educational development service (in the north, south, central LEAs). Then, the 3 services were collapsed into a single one, e.g., the current IAS, which was created in 1993. Due to shortages of staff, and the retirement of his immediate superior, he took up also the direction and the management of the advisory element within the IAS. At the time of this interview, he still had responsibility for the administration and management of GEST across the authority in a sort of bureaucratic job. He managed a team of LEAs with their schools, for the overall In-service training programme. As part of his professional development, he occasionally attended courses with Head teachers, on management or languages.

**SUBJECT N:** Subject N from LEA3 in Liverpool, on the other hand, majored in History during his ITT. He has a high professional profile and a large experience in his job, initially as a teacher, and then as a teacher trainer, a job he did for 15 years. At the time of this interview N was the senior Inspector in LEA3. He covered a subject responsibility in History. He was in charge of the management, co-ordination, evaluation and follow-up of the INSET delivered by the authority as well. Beyond that, N was responsible for 20 schools and was in charge of NVQH in the region. As Adviser and Inspector he met regularly with the Head teachers and teachers, and inspected classrooms as well. He was particularly involved with school-industry work and educational programmes, along with assessment of pupils. He had been working in Curriculum Development doing educational research as well.

#### **LEAs 2&3 in the NW**

The IAS (LEA2) in Manchester is a massive authority (K). Since Manchester is a heavily populated city LEA2 is located in the Greater Manchester area, which had 10 LEAs. At the time

of this research (1997), they worked with 233 schools including 27 secondary ones. They had 4,100 teachers under their supervision.

As learnt from documents and interviews consulted, the staff consisted of 13 inspectors and 13 advisers within the establishment; a set of 10 co-ordinators or advisory teachers, some working on a fixed term contract of 2 or 3 years, others as permanent staff. Among them, there was only one Head teacher seconded who worked with the advisers on management training programmes (compared to 40 to 50 seconded in 1993 as part of GEST funding).

The functions of the Inspectors, Advisory Teachers and Advisers were the same as in other regions consulted. Inspectors and Advisers wore 2 hats, and OFSTED (both pre and post) brought them together. The percentage of Inspectors' time spent in attached schools had increased significantly in Manchester. In their inspection capacity they normally carried out two-day visits to 23 schools: 10 primary, 7 secondary and 6 special schools each academic year. They also negotiated support time of consultancy, generally devoted to OFSTED and / or delivery of INSET as part of a Professional Development Programme (IAS: Professional Development Programme, Secondary & Special Schools, 1996, 1997:2).

The Advisers' service responded to the needs identified by the Inspectors. Some inspectors did some training on management with Head teachers, but it was the advisers who were really in charge of that role. The advisory committee consisted of 2 main committees of 15 staff each. The Advisory teachers had freshness of experience as they were in direct contact with teachers in the classroom; but that was not the case with Advisers and Inspectors, according to K. For the same reason, LEA2 in Manchester sometimes bought in teachers' expertise from schools to train other teachers. Experts were also bought in privately and the LEA paid for individuals working outside the working days. However, most of the work was done by the permanent staff.

In Merseyside the LEAs' 3 organisation appeared similar although smaller in size and staff to that of Manchester. From the 5 LEAs in the region, this LEA's Inspectors and Appraisers worked with 200 schools and 4,000 teachers, and had the same responsibilities as their counterparts (advisers and advisors) in other authorities of the UK. A team of 30 people was involved in the delivery of training for teachers. There was a manager who put things together and set the INSET programmes, whilst two people were in charge of the monitoring evaluation. They were part of the Quality Assurance Service (QAS) division. Centrally, the QAS offered training, support and advice (e.g., courses, seminars, etc) as well. In schools they gave on-site training, advice, and support to all sectors of the service in line with the priorities identified in agreement with Head



teachers and staff development co-ordinators. They also provided IT through consultancy and school-based training, etc. (QAS: Service Level Agreement, 1997-98).

In course assurance there was a team of about 40 people: 14 inspectors, about 20 advisers and 5 associates advisers and inspectors. In administration there were about 15 people too. They also enjoyed a consultancy capacity for schools, which was called the Science Inspectorate Service.

### **INSET in the LEAs (LBI)**

LEA-based INSET in Manchester was run by the IAS (LEA2), in co-operation with the clients (K) in a sort of interactional mode (I) (see 3.4 & Ap. E3). They worked with service providers, the government's training agency (TTA) and with other trainers. The courses were basically run for school staff and governors on any area (IAS, 1996-97:4). Schools used the training provided in the Professional Development Programme to a greater or lesser extent. Some of them were fully subscribed to LEA2, as opposed to the 'pay as you go basis' system (IAS's foreword, *ibid.*). LEA2 also networked with a lot of services, e.g. seminars, which involved many other providers in partnership. As specified in the booklets, the courses took, like in other LEAs, the form of twilight sessions, whole or half days, and evenings. There were also meetings with co-ordinators and HoDs of the different subjects every half term.

The number of courses varied from one LEA to another. In Manchester, there were fewer courses for secondary and special schools (145) than for primary. In Liverpool, there were altogether 361 (365 in fact) courses to be run throughout the year. From these, only 56 were fully run for secondary schools, though teachers could attend 120 courses, which were run for all. Besides, in Liverpool a lot of schools and teachers put on their own training (N). They bought in the training equally from university and other providers. That was not very much the case in Manchester.

Costs for courses differed in the two authorities. In Manchester, 17% of GEST provided a whole school package including one-day training and support with no additional costs to all courses for consultation or for advice to subscribers. This excluded areas, which received devolved grants. Non-subscribers did not have to pay training for school's managers. They had to pay, however, for individuals on a 'pay as you go basis' ((IAS, 1996-97:3). Customised services amounted to £200 per day chargeable to schools in receipt of post OFSTED GEST grant (i.e. support, training, and advice). In Liverpool, schools with Service Agreement were charged at a lower rate. As seen in the booklet, courses were £80 standard charge / 70 with the Service Agreement; £50/40

for half day; and £40/35 in twilight sessions. When the venue was different, extra costs might be incurred. SBI cost varied from £300/275 for whole day with 10 persons, to £325 (15), plus £5 per additional person. A morning could easily cost £200/175 per 10 people to £225/200 (15) plus £5 per each additional person. Special prices were negotiated when governors and staff were trained together. Consultancy was £70/60 per one to one advice session before 3.30pm, and £80/75 after 3.30 p.m., given the great demand after school time. The courses were paid in two ways: one, by subscription, the other, by University and LEAs sponsoring teachers, though to a less extent lately.

Due possibly to the national/local priorities and demands of the moment (I mode in 3.4 & Ap. E3), the foci of the courses were similar. The main foci were both subject-specific for teachers and management-related for managers. As the booklets show, LEA2 offered INSET within the Customised service for whole school staff and governors on any area identified by the schools (IAS:1996-97). Within the In-school support service, members of the IAS might support teachers in classroom areas such as IT, teaching and learning styles. It was, then, skills as well as curriculum-based. The same basically applied to LEA3. Most of the areas emphasised on: 1) whole school issues for senior and middle management; 2) planning and implementation; 3) assessment of NC being the main foci of INSET for secondary teachers. The LEAs were not able to support many teachers for courses leading to awards given the limited funds for sponsorship/secondment (see Clients of INSET in 5.2.2 below).

LEA2 in Manchester partially supported some (no more than 20) teachers for M Ed degrees every year, provided it was in Special Needs. They also supported, in partnership with the University of Manchester, the Certificate in Management, which might well lead to an M Sc. degree (K). They paid the whole fees for the first year, and if teachers wanted to continue they had to pay themselves or the schools paid half fees for the rest of the course. Schools, according to K, seemed to have a large amount of budget, which spread into all staff rather than only on one person. Since the release of a person on a full time basis was about £30,000 (K), teachers had to take the courses on a 3 years part-time basis. This was evidenced in the questionnaires' survey (see 5.2.2. below).

Attendance at INSET courses in LEA3 in Liverpool appeared more significant than in Manchester. Teachers attended LBI courses the most (30%) and then the University's (8%) according to the survey. Nonetheless, the trainer could not be sure of the extent to which the schools and teachers took advantage of INSET, as records were not kept (N). N recognised that the only way of knowing or assessing this would be through inspections in the classrooms, although it would be 'a long term benefit' difficult to measure in at least 3 years time (N).



The courses in the two authorities were evaluated as very good or good, according to the trainers. The evaluation took a written form, and procedures appeared to be more comprehensive in LEA2 in Manchester than in LEA3. They were in the process of reviewing the format for the evaluation sheets so as to make them clearer and easier to complete (IAS, 1996, 1997). Although 97% of the respondents of the IAS' evaluations in Manchester graded the courses as very good or good, teachers might have taken the courses only because they were all financed. Aware of this, K's concern was the courses' impact, and the extent to which staff could use the learnt skills back in schools. In his own words 'it is very difficult to get the balance right ...and this is the biggest complaint in the evaluations' (K). LEA3 in Liverpool used a document called 'Evaluation of Staff Development and INSET' as part of the Quality Assurance Service and Inspectorate to evaluate the course and identify the needs for further courses. A second evaluation of INSET courses was done from the school perspective. The School Development Co-ordinator asked teachers who attended the courses to become Staff Development Co-ordinators and to fill out a special formative evaluation when they went back from the courses. Based on the evaluations, time, content, length, etc., of the course changed over time. This was done 'to give a value to the evaluations made by both, the teachers and the schools' (N). Confirmation of the use of the learnt skills, however, would be only evident through a follow-up to teachers.

LEA2 & LEA3 claimed to be doing a kind of a follow-up to certain courses, particularly when teachers had to ensure they met requirements, e.g. assessment, literacy, etc.

K from Manchester briefly mentioned that LEA2 did a follow-up through the Inspection Service on a selective basis. Some LEA3's courses in Liverpool were inspected and monitored by the advisors who visited the schools in order to identify developments and outcomes after the courses. When the trainer was the subject Inspector, he/she would do the follow-up and a formal report might follow. In other cases, a network might be established after the course took place where teachers visited each other in the schools to see its effects (in a kind of peer observation). Therefore, it was not only about courses but it was, as N put it, 'about looking at others teachers working'. It also appears as if LEA3 courses were meeting the teachers' needs more substantially than LEA2.

Triangulation of methods confirmed that different methods were used in the identification of needs. LEA2 offered support in the identification of needs through its monitoring and advisory function. They aimed at training staff teams, and individuals to meet departmental needs and targets. Moreover, the Consultancy Service for members of staff offered advice and support in any areas identified by schools (IAS, 1996- 1997:4). LEA3 needs in Liverpool were identified

through schools inspections and the School Development Plans (bottom-up mode, (B), needs being taken into account in the planning stage. But N recognised that

***‘They were ...never going to meet the needs of any one individual and school’  
... given that the needs of the schools would be always opposite to the  
teachers’.***

(Subject N, LEA 3 in Liverpool).

Teachers attend INSET of value to their pupils and schools rather than to fulfil their own personal needs and interests (N). Probably aware of this gap, the LEAs were beginning to offer support to individual teachers who could not cope with the demands, behaviour problems, etc. in the schools.

The findings in the interviews also revealed that partnership for short courses was broader in LEA2 in Manchester than in LEA3 in Liverpool. Brochures, fliers, and interviews basically concluded that the ‘whole thing is about partnership of schools given that the service is based on subscription’ (K). Partners of LEA2 appeared to be growing lately, particularly links with industry. There were significant additions in the outdoor and environmental education field in the section of Professional Development Programme (IAS, 1996-97). Citing but a few: Careers partnership, Child Protection action in Education Group: Debdale Centre (outdoor INSET); The Museum of Science and Industry in Manchester, etc. All these partners delivered short / less formal INSET to schools. LEA2 also had partnership with schools and universities, as confirmed by interviewee M from U3 in Manchester.

At the other extreme, LEA3 in Liverpool had links only with the 2 universities of the city. They met regularly as a team (as was witnessed once by the present writer). They had a compact network of trainers under the direction of Interviewees N from LEA3, and L from U4. As they accounted, in their meetings, university and LEA’s staff’s plan courses, discuss problems, and when the LEA cannot deliver courses, the Universities are ready to do so.

They also worked together in the design of programmes for staff development co-ordinators that lead teachers to accreditation (e.g. Diploma, or Master Degree). Despite co-operation and partnership, all courses were charged, with rare exceptions, and most of the schools paid for their own training. Partnership was profitable as it would lower costs in some of the cases by taking out service agreement for the partner schools (N), where the latter might buy back £3,000 worth or more. Schools would have courses up to that amount plus some free courses along with some governors’ training.



Courses would be preferred in commercial centres, and N recognised that an ideal form of INSET ought to address school's problem solving. As he put it

*'The ideal INSET had to be with individual consultants working with individual schools, solving particular problems which there may be in that school'*

(Subject N).

It is important that INSET addresses

*'... A real school problem because it is difficult to try to search the need of all the teachers attending, given their different levels of experience and needs; and given their mixed-ability nature'*

(Subject K).

This was the extent of interviews in the NW of England (Manchester and Liverpool). Next, the clients' views about INSET in the same region are explored.

## **5.2.2. CLIENTS OF INSET IN THE NORTHWEST OF ENGLAND**

The respondents to the postal questionnaires in the Northwest were secondary teachers from Liverpool, and on a minor scale, from Manchester.

400 semi-structured postal questionnaires were sent to the Inspection and Advisers Service Office in Manchester (IAS/LEA2) in order to be administered among teachers in 5 of its schools. Regrettably, they were not passed by the contact person as agreed, causing some trauma and delay in data collection. Further attempts with schools would produce only 18 returns. More successfully, out of 100 postal questionnaires sent to LEA3 in Liverpool, 43% were returned for a total of 57 returns in the NW.

## **OVERVIEW OF RESULTS**

### **5.2.2.i TEACHERS AND INSET (see Tables 1-15 in App. B)**

This survey in the NW was done mostly with secondary Science and other subjects (42/73%), as well as MFL (12/21%) teachers (see Table 2, App. B). The results revealed that they held mostly Bachelor degrees (44/53%), and Certificate/Diploma in Education (19/23%) (see Table 1, App B)

from college (28/49%) and University (25/43%) (see Table 2, App. B), with 7/9% being Masters holders before they got involved in INSET.

Analysis in some detail shows that few (less than a third, 17/30%) of the 57 individuals surveyed had undertaken post-graduate qualifications 'as part of INSET' (see Table 3, App. B). These figures roughly coincide with those in the NE (36%) and London (24%), and may be an indication that common problems such as sponsorship (roughly 9/53%) and secondment (3/18%) may have been limiting the attendance of teachers at INSET (see Tables 4 & 5, App. B).

However, 35/61% (see Table 6, App. B) of those surveyed manifested that they had attended (recently), or were involved in INSET at the sampling time (50% NE/70% L). These results cannot be generalised, however, due to the fact that a good number of respondents in the survey (9/25%) failed to reveal the provider of the training (see Table 6, App. B). Analogous results were arrived at in other regions surveyed. Teachers in the NW had attended mostly LBI (11/30%) though a good number of them actually preferred the SBI provision (25/37%) (see Table 7, App. B) or UBI (16/23%), leaving paradoxically LBI as a last choice (13/19%) (see Tables 6 & 7, App. B). The overall conclusion was that provision did not always match the actual teachers' preference for a provider or a type of INSET in the NW.

Cross-reference of interviews and questionnaire methodologies suggest that the LEA's efforts to recruit and involve teachers in INSET by facilitating access to free INSET in the NW and to accreditation did not always convince teachers to go for it. The LEAs might have been imposing the INSET through the service agreement, which might in turn have affected teachers' motivation due to the lack of free and varied choice. Perhaps LBI ought to work more in partnership with Universities towards the accreditation of INSET so as to please the clients, mostly those many who take INSET for professional advancement (PA) (37/42%) (see Table 8, App. B). This would help them make more sense of the courses they were taking, for their CPD and perhaps would motivate them to pursue higher degrees given its advantages.

As many of them said INSET assists their professional advancement and that of their colleagues (S23 NW); and is essential to gain promotion (S8 NW). 'INSET motivates teachers to become a better teacher (S48 NW); 'at present to be a team developing the school, and later on for professional advancement' (S39 NW). It also 'gives opportunities to improve and maintain quality of teaching (S48) and subject expertise (S15 NW), as they had access to greater knowledge leading to better teaching (S6 NW). INSET also helps to up-grade teachers and up date them with recent happenings in education either policies or methods' (S1 NW)...it improves team's work...etc. Importantly, through INSET the quality of the learning-teaching process for the pupils'



benefit is raised, because it 'brings enhancement in the classroom; and it helps to examine children' learning and experience (S47 NW), and...the students (S50 NW) and pupils to gain more (S42 NW) out of it.

### **5.2.2.ii SCHOOL BASED INSET (Tables 9-15, Appendix B)**

In keeping with the Review of the Literature, data results showed that half (40/51%) the teachers' schools investigated in the NW operated with a bolt-on INSET system (see Table 9, App. B). External input for SBI was only recognised by 31/40% of the participants in the survey (53% NE/26% L), the University being its minor provider (4/5%)(13%NE / 4% L), below 'Other providers' (e.g. Examiner Board, etc. (10/13%)) (see Table 9, App. B). These findings are not surprising at all, as costs and time involved seem to make out-reach courses not worthwhile for University's tutors to provide. Besides, in some cases time pressures and budget cuts for INSET oblige universities to charge expensive fees that schools cannot pay for the concept of this type of INSET, etc. The shift of INSET from LEAs to schools in the UK (since the 1980s), with little input from other providers, i.e., HEI, was then largely evidenced in the NW of England (40%). This appeared also to be the consequence of government prescriptions, and the attempt of schools to be effective and self-sufficient through LMS. Some schools had a Staff Development Committee, which considered departments' requests and SMT Development Plans and allocated budgets as it saw fit (S38 NW).

Partnership did not seem to be directly related in this case with the little external input to SBI. As Table 12 (App. B) illustrates, partnership of schools with others in the NW scores better (27/48% NW) than in other regions investigated so far ((NE 21%), (London, 17%)).

The LEAs as partners of only 20% of the teacher's schools surveyed, provided 17/22% of the SBI (see Table 9). They provided INSET which was current, informative and subject-specific' (S24 NW) in liaison with schools. They offered INSET to schools when required (S23 NW) and according to their needs. LEAs also were mentioned to support and advice on training /cascading etc., through courses of 10 days for subject knowledge service agreements with advisers (S13 NW), or 5 day courses which are usually organised by Advisors (S21 NW) and provided by the authority. Consortium between LEAs and HoD (S15 NW) was also brought into discussion. The former funded and trained teachers above all in pre-post OFSTED government courses (S7 NW). HEIs, as minor partners (5/18%) in the NW, provided a minor 4/5% of the SBI, confirming K's and N's statements in the interviews that only some 'exchange for ITA units with universities' (S7 NW) was happening. This situation did not seem to be likely to change soon, due to the TTA plans to fund, and OFSTED to oversee University-based INSET.



Several schools, in turn, appeared to be providing teachers with more than the 5 compulsory sessions. In this survey in the NW, 54% of the respondents had a more frequent provision of SBI than the five training days. Yet, only 6/11% of them (see Table 10 & 11, App. B) had to attend it, especially when the schools were preparing for OFSTED (S14 NW). *Whole school issues* were the main foci of SBI (65%) in the NW (NE (63%) and London (75%)) (see Table 13, App. B). In the teachers' opinion, SBI covers all aspects of curricular/management, and pastoral issues (S34, 29 NW (S29 NW), e.g., on drugs awareness and Special Needs (S17 NW); provision (S21 NW); Moderation (S38 NW); and Computers (S33 NW), and seems to be limited to the School Development Plan. Methodology was provided to 19/16% of the teachers surveyed, in spite of the vast impact this focus was recognised to have in the classroom by many surveyees (39/68%) (71% NE/66% L) (see Table 14, App. B). It is only 'a support for weak teaching (S10 NW) and depends, of course, on the nature (type) of the INSET' (S30 NW) they were provided with.

Finally, the majority of teachers in this survey (43/75%) expressed themselves to be content with SBI as the available provision seemed to met their needs (see Table 15, App. B) (NE (62%); London (67%); Wales (80%)). SBI prioritised the provision, which followed the School Development Plans issued by schools, and covered subject-related INSET, a need for teachers, which did not seem to be equally addressed, for example, in the NE. The teachers needs were assessed through a bottom-up (B) model involving 'Questionnaires (S 6, S14 NW), annual discussion of schools and personal needs (S6 NW), as well as monitoring the activity in schools by the planners/providers of the INSET (S17 NW). Inevitably, some tension between schools, departments, and individuals' needs would be detected. This is because SBI 'tends to focus only on perceived needs of schools e.g., OFSTED/Action Plan '(S4 NW). Besides,

*'... this (SBI) focuses on schools' needs for pupils' development rather than for teachers' improvement'*  
(Subject 3 NW).

On occasions, in an effort to balance teachers' and schools' needs, the teachers were asked what they would like INSET on (S32 NW) and a Staff Deputy committee, appraisers and Department Reviews (S36 NW), discussed and analysed (S15 NW) the needs as part of the appraisal process (S10 NW). They took them into account (S21 NW) in the planning and adoption of new methods, in order to improve delivery in the class.

This section (5.2) has been entirely about INSET in the NW of England. The following sections (5.3 & 5.4) will consider INSET in the Midlands and Wales respectively.



### 5.3 THE MIDLANDS: BIRMINGHAM

This part of the research was carried out in the Midlands, specifically in Birmingham. It refers to INSET as being operated at University and LEA levels only. Therefore, the data collected are based merely on interviews and documentary analysis. Since the argument can be made that the information that follows may be one-sided owing to the lack of the clients' testimony, a thorough documentary analysis consisting of audio tapes, brochures and prospectuses as well as Internet pages was carried out. This methodology was intended to validate/negate the interviewees' revelations, and above all, to make the section a more credible one.

As a result, part 5.3 is based heavily on up-dated documents, which may well be considered important to claim validity for the results.

#### Background

As the second largest city in England with a population of 1,017,600, Birmingham is claimed to be the 'heart of education' and the 'largest urban education service in the UK'. Its multi-cultural population and innovative Local Education Authorities have made of Birmingham an extremely proud city given the educational opportunities it provides. They

*'...Are determined to open these opportunities up for everyone, providing high standards of education for people of all ages'*

(Birmingham: The Heart of Education, Information for your Teaching Career with Birmingham City Council Education Department: October, 1996, 1997).

Large campaigns with attractive slogans such as 'A supportive management culture; Real Professional Development; Whatever your ambitions, there are exceptional career prospects with Birmingham', etc., are used by the City Council to attract teachers' enrolment and to promote the teaching career (ibid. pp: 2).

As in mid 1997, Birmingham city had 3 universities, 2 colleges of HE, and 8 Further Education Colleges with above 36,000 students (Audio-tape, Birmingham 'The Heart of Education', City Council, Education Department, 1997). Likewise, there existed 26 nursery schools, 329 primary schools, 36 special schools, 4 specialist sixth form colleges, and 61 secondary schools.

## Secondary education

Birmingham's cultural diversity is claimed to provide for a good record of achievement in schools. According to the first consultation of documents made in 1996, there were 35 comprehensive secondary schools ages (11-16); 24 comprehensives for pupils age (11-18) and 2 Grammar Schools (61 altogether). Secondary pupils, ages 11-15, amounted to 46,742; and ages 16+ amounted to 3,496. In all, secondary teachers totalled 3,155 of which 2,991 were full time (FT), and 164 part-time (PT) (Birmingham: The Heart of Education, Information for your Teaching Career with Birmingham City Council Education Department, 1996). But figures have changed (increased /decreased), according to the last (of two) consultation made for the purpose of this research. In 1998, there were 444 LEA maintained schools (452 in 1996) (T)); teachers amounted to 8,769 in 1998 (8,753: 1996) (T)), and pupils 154,000 in 1998, (T) (164,277 in 1996) (Tim Brighouse, Chief Education Officer, Council House, Birmingham, January, 1997). Each school had a delegated budget, and 28 of them had a 6th form. Since the authority's motto was learn from birth, their main priority was the early years development.

Teachers' recruitment involved well-qualified specialists as well as people who could offer a broader curriculum. The Application form and Person Specification for secondary teaching (pink sheet) referred to recruitment as to be based upon

*'An appreciation of the need to continue professional training when in post'*

(Person Specification for Secondary Database, In Birmingham City Council, Education Department: September 1997).

Among other things, the aim is to 'provide clear leadership on best practice in the classroom' (3<sup>rd</sup> principle in education; and 'a structured professional development' (4<sup>th</sup> principle) for teachers (Birmingham: The Heart of Education. Information for your Teaching Career with Birmingham City Council Education Department, 1997). Each one of the schools is wholeheartedly committed to work for the progress of the teachers' professional life. To this effect, the LEAs offer a major comprehensive and well made programme of CPD, which is backed up by an experienced team of advisers and advisory teachers (Information for your Teaching Career with Birmingham City Council Education Department, Audio-tape 1997-1998). This was confirmed by Subject T from a LEA in Birmingham, and also by the City Council's brochures (1996-1997, 1997-1998). According to the literature, teachers in the 61 secondary schools are provided with a range of experiences along their careers with the support of schools and central service training programmes, as explored next.



5.3.1 MAJOR PROVIDERS OF INSET IN BIRMINGHAM

In the absence of quantitative data (questionnaires) the structure of this section differs a bit from previous ones. It tries to put together qualitative data from different sources, e.g. a University and a LEA. Interviews were conducted with two teacher trainers (Subjects O and P), (see Fig. 13 below) in a University in Birmingham (U5), and with an Officer (T) in a LEA (LEA 4). The profiles and views of the interviewees are given simultaneously as follows.

5.3.1.i UNIVERSITY (U5)

Interviewees' Profile

**SUBJECT O:** As Figure 13 illustrates below, before his first appointment Subject O held a BA in Psychology, a PGCE in Education, and a Diploma in Special Education. Since then, he holds a Master degree in Special Education, and a PhD in Education.

SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWEES' PROFILES IN BIRMINGHAM

Subject	Major area	Teaching experience ( in years)	Roles	Experience. with INSET (in years)	Training prior to this role	Time of Interview (in mins)	Year of Sampling
O University 5 Birmingham	Psychology	- 13 year as school teacher -5 yearss college	-Senior tutor CPD	-23 years -17 years with U4.	-BA, -PGCE -Dip.S.Ed. -Master S. Ed -PhD Ed.	80'	1996
P University 5 Birmingham	French and Spanish	-secondry -MFL trainer	-Lecturer -Teacher trainer	- over 20 years in U5	-BA -exper. from teaching in schools	30'	1996
T LEA 4 Birmingham	English	- 9 years	-Profess. Develop. Coordinator	- 14 years	- BA -learning by doing	60'	1998

Fig. 13

He was initially a school's teacher for about 13 years, and a teacher trainer at a college of HE for more than 5 years. Up to 1998, he was involved in teacher training for 23 years, 19 of them with U5. He got involved with INSET when he was appointed as a trainer and tutor in a Special Education Group to work with children with learning and behaviour difficulties. At the time of this interview, Subject O was a senior tutor of CPD at U5 in Birmingham. He was responsible for the organisation of all the previously called In-service training courses, now CPD. He also organised the CPD committee in the faculty, which looked at the development of courses in different subject areas.

**SUBJECT P:** Subject P, on the other hand, was a senior lecturer in MFL at U5. He had been working there for over 20 years. Before that, he was an MFL secondary teacher. At the time of this interview he was involved in PGCE and INSET, although the latter on a minor scale (see Fig.13 above).

### 5.3.1.ii LEAs (LEA 4)

**SUBJECT T:** Information upon LEA 4 in Birmingham was elicited from Subject T. He majored in English during his Initial Training. At the time of this interview (1998) he was the Professional Development Co-ordinator in the Advisory and Support Service at LEA4 in Birmingham where he had worked for over 14 years. Before that he was involved (1975-1984) with another LEA with a project called the Promotion of Racial Equality and Justice for 9 years, the aim of which was to develop anti-racist education in predominantly white secondary schools. From that, he was appointed Advisory Teacher for Information Technology, and then Senior Teacher for History. Eventually, he became a Teacher Trainer in History working with INSET Professional Development across the whole city. In all, he had been working with authorities for 23 years, that is, since 1975, but for the LEA4 in Birmingham for 14 years, that is, since 1984 (see Fig. 13 above)

The interview with T and documentary analysis disclosed that, in 1998, there were the equivalents of 80 full-time staff altogether, that is, about 40 advisers and 40 teacher advisers in LEA4. The advisers and advisory teachers had the same roles and functions as those in other regions. On an annual basis, they put together a central-based programme of courses and conferences. They also did subject policy; advised teachers and managers; looked at resources, made recommendations, and prepared schools for inspections. They were, in line with Fullan's (1991) theory, more supporters or critical friends than inspectors. There were no inspectors as such in the LEA because as T put it

*'We do not consider ourselves primarily to have an Inspectorial relationship with the schools. We consider ourselves from a political point of view in partnership with schools'*

(Subject T, LEA 4 in Birmingham )

Hence, 'schools did not have inspections but reviews in partnership with the LEAs. An inspectorial role could also be included but on invitation of the schools' (T). Consultants, on the other hand, were experts, teachers at schools, or school inspectors. In addition to the consultation and advisory service, advisers and advisory teachers spent also a significant part of



their time in income generation, given that they were -still are- not totally funded by the LEA (T). As an example, the LEA's income target for 1998 was 2.3 million pounds, funds they had to raise by, among others things, doing OFSTED inspections; working for other LEAs, etc. LEA4 planned to increase the relationship/partnership with the HEIs in the future; to work with other schools outside the city; and to develop partnership with parents. A summary of findings about INSET in the U5 and LEA4 is intended below.

## **INSET in Birmingham**

The methodologies used in this small-scale study in Birmingham concluded that teachers have a huge and rich variety of choices for their professional development. They are given 'many opportunities alongside colleagues in a challenging environment of achievement of the staff as teachers and researchers' (Head of School In the Education Prospectus, 1996-1997:1).

Findings showed that the CPD programmes offered by the UDE in U5 were similar to those of other Universities in the UK, e.g. full and part-time, non-award to award bearing courses for students from the UK and overseas, etc. When documents were investigated, over 900 students were registered for qualifications in 1995-1996, including 70 from overseas. It had also a significant number of teachers/trainees from all parts of the Midlands and Wales who studied part-time while 'continuing in full-time employment'. The prospectus reads that the CPD department was given the highest ranking for its research activity in 1996.

As O & P reported, INSET/CPD in U5 is planned with a minimum qualification of a degree, except in the case of B Phil, as it is considered a first degree. They have the same modular courses other universities have, e.g. Diplomas, and MEd degrees (Education Prospectus, 1996-1997), which teachers can join at any time of/or term they wished (O, P). (Award Bearing Taught Courses: Modular Programmes In the Education Prospectus 1996-1997:16). In addition, teachers can gain a qualification either by distance learning or by negotiating a course to be taught within a school or centre (pp: 2, *ibid.*). Different from other universities, in the outreach sectors, tutors from U5 went to schools or worked jointly with LEA4. In like manner, students through distance education programmes are supported by correspondence as well as regional Tutors (O). In O's account, there exists a Professional Development Committee made up of tutors representing all academic areas (e.g., School of Education; Management to Policy, etc.) who report to the committee of the whole school, interviewee O being in charge of the whole programme. The UDE welcome the opportunity to discuss institutions' needs for professional and organisational development. Needs can be met through negotiating on-site or out-reach programmes of study or research covering a variety of curriculum areas (O).

Taught courses in U5 are characterised by a mixture of 4 main foci or academic fields: 1) on Educational Management Policy involving courses which will deal with school policies, Decision Making, and School Organisation; 2) on Sciences; 3) Special Education Needs (O); or 4) in Humanities, with subject-based courses (e.g. English, MFL, etc.). Teachers attend INSET in U5 to improve the quality of teaching and to gain qualifications with prospects of promotion; or the 2 things went together. Teachers set out because they know that INSET helps in the development of their skills, despite not having a financial gain automatically, as it used to be the case before (O). This view matches the results of questionnaires in the other regions investigated in the UK.

Teachers evaluated the courses very positively through a mainly quantitative method (questionnaires). That 'formal evaluation' was a serious indicator of the quality of the service as people take more qualifications than they came on the first place' (O). Likewise, the monitoring of attendance indicates to them that dropouts are the products of teachers' pressure in work rather than dissatisfaction (with the courses). There was no proper follow-up procedure for INSET. The only follow-up concerned some package courses that the University offers with the LEAs on Saturdays, as part of a partnership project with schools. As a result of this follow-up, some publications on Educational Course's Evaluations have been made in the CPD Centre.

In LEA 4, on the other hand, interviewee T mentioned that he was the key person in the running of INSET in the authority. Hundreds of short and longer paid courses provided for secondary teachers and classroom assistants (i.e. nursery nurses), ranging across the ages are run throughout the year, *though the authority does not support teachers taking post-graduate studies as part of INSET*. Supply cover for teachers undertaking INSET depends upon budget availability (e.g. funded centrally by the LEA or the schools); it is not 'a matter of policy, but a matter of practice given the restriction in the budget' (T). According to T, courses in the LEA are planned only for particular subjects. In an attempt to integrate methodology with content, pedagogy as well as organisation of methods are the main foci (T). In his view, teachers appreciate very much LEA4 courses. This was found through both a quantitative evaluation for short courses, and an interim evaluation for longer courses. That is 'a formative approach to find the INSET impact' (T). Besides, a paper-based qualitative evaluation was made on a one-to-one basis with Head teachers and INSET co-ordinators. As a multi-million pounds business, the authority was in a market place where quality is its motto (T). However, as other authorities, LEA4 does not follow-up/monitor teachers after INSET because they consider that it is not their role, 'it is not within their scope' (T). Instead, they increasingly advertise the courses *suggesting a certain number of days for support in the classroom*, as part of their partnership agreements.



A *three-party* strong and coherent partnership among training institutions has been the key for the CPD success in Birmingham i.e., LEAs, Universities, and clusters of schools. Partnership is especially strong with HEI. This is broadly emphasised by the Chair and Chief of Education in the brochures promoting education. In his own words

*'In partnership with three local universities and two colleges of higher education, we offer teachers the complete range of teaching opportunities and a professional support network to match'.*

(Pinney, R, and Brighouse, 1997-1998).

Partnership involved the discussion and identification of needs, planning, presentation of proposals by U5, joint run of programmes (i.e. quality development linked with Birmingham), as well as LEA's teaching and supervision (O, P). Two outstanding schemes, as a result of this partnership, are : one, the Teachers' Academy, the other, the Teachers' Fellowship.

*The Teachers' Academy* scheme puts together a partnership between the LEAs and HEI. Teachers' work with LEA4 is awarded by U5 through approaches of accreditation of 'prior learning' in areas such as Secondary Middle Management; writing up of policies; and the drawing up of schemes of work. Thus, any INSET done has the potential to be accredited by HEI (T). *The Teachers' Fellowship*, on the other hand, pays for teachers to be taken into schools for 2 or 3 days a week during a year to do some research on particular issues. Also, Advisory teachers in the LEAs research on the impact of recent legislative changes of the NC on primary schools and how it works in practice. Regrettably, this partnership does not involve all departments and subject areas. In MFL for example, there is just some private partnership (not at University level).

A genuine partnership scheme between LEA4 and schools was also confirmed by the LEA's officer (T). This occurs in 5 main forms: 1) by Head teachers' forums; 2) Head teachers' secondment; 3) subscription; 4) extra-support to schools, and 5) accreditation. Partner schools subscribe to the LEA-based INSET at the beginning of the financial year using the devolved GEST moneys. The authority also offers schools some extra support with the remaining GEST funds they keep. Some 2 or 3 courses in partnership with schools involve 60 or 70 teachers paid by the LEA to provide on certain accredited or designated courses (O). Short courses are evidenced by a portfolio, and a sort of short VIVA of the teachers' experience in the field they wrote about.

One other form of partnership in Birmingham would occur (like in the NW) in the form of negotiation among schools, or cluster of schools through LMS particularly in the Technical and

Vocational studies, which fostered a co-operative and rewarding environment for all concerned (Audio-tape The City Council, Education Department (1996-1997)). The main aim is to raise the standards of pupils' performance as well as to further the progress of the teachers. These types of partnership help also solve the problem of little/lack of budget for training. Owing to the high costs involved, courses leading to awards are taken at the school venue over a 3 years period by special arrangement between the University and the LEA. This system operates with GEST grants, which are paying extended teachers' courses (T). In O's and P's estimations, there could be easily 1,500 in the whole CPD system, from whom no more than 20 would have secondment in any given year, i.e., full-time mandatory courses. LEA 4 was mentioned to have seconded 2 Head teachers to be Advisers and some others to be consultants lately. This is, however, facilitated by the schools, which act as employers (T).

However, the focus of the courses was known to tackle the needs of the schools rather than the individual teachers'. The authority undertakes some projects where, in conjunction with the HEI, teachers' work is accredited towards certain degrees (MA) so as to fulfil that gap. Sometimes when a teacher faces specific difficulties and these are identified, the authority is able to deliver a particular package of support for that one person.

The needs' identification procedure in LEA 4, as T mentioned, is done in four main ways: 1) by schools, 2) by Head teacher, 3) by appraisal, and, 4) by the advisers working in the schools in partnership. It is assumed that these procedures are successful, judging by the high standards and popularity of the LEA at local and national level. At the time of this research (1998), LEA's quality and excellence were manifested in an OFSTED inspection in which it was ranked as the top LEA so far inspected in the UK. The visit concluded, among other things, that surprisingly there was no gap of credibility because

*'What they (in the LEA) said and what schools said was the same thing'*

(Subject T, LEA4, Birm.).

The authority was suggested to be very effective in its roles as banker; provider of INSET; quality controller, and above all, as a broker of economies. Its success was attributed partly to the effective partnership with others.

Also, from the methodologies it was further known that, teachers' preference for venues in Birmingham depends upon the typology and the providers of the INSET (e.g. LEAs, HEI, private Consultants/agencies). Teachers are inclined to choose the providers' premises for convenience and combined advantages, e.g. library facilities, socialisation, status gain, etc. With LEA's



INSET, however, they prefer fancy venues e.g. the National Botanical Garden, the National Exhibition Centre, etc., which they can afford. An ideal INSET would be that with

*‘...A full-time secondment because it gives people time, space and opportunity for change’*

(Subject O, U5, Birm.).

This was not foreseen to happen soon, due, again, to financial pressures in education. Also, trainers and tutors in Birmingham considered it better to take INSET on a continuing basis, as it is more comfortable to work with the same people throughout the year, instead of having the trainees for only one module. One other ideal form would be that teachers had

*‘Part-time day release, that is to say, a day/afternoon to come to the course, even in the evening with some time for library work’*

(Subject O, U5, Birm.).

In MFLs, teachers in Birmingham did not seem to attend the INSET courses regularly ... ‘ nothing like the extent to which they should’ (P). This field faced a difficult situation at the time because there was little money for certain specific areas like special needs. The Language trainer (P) in U5 was aware that MFL was not a popular subject at the time, and that it would not be the flavour of the moment.

Evidence of this is the few applicants for the courses. For O, the teachers miss opportunities offered by the University as through INSET individuals gain greater knowledge and understanding of the subject area or their particular role in the school; they develop skills and abilities, or they find new ways and/or approaches to teaching. Through Professional Development, teachers become more reflective, and by effect more effective (O). P found some difficulty in ‘telling what really happens after INSET, given that some of the teachers put into practice what they have learnt, but there is no guarantee that they all do this. Thus

*‘ They (in U5) give the INSET but the only one who can answer properly about the benefits is the trainee’*

(Subject P, U5, Birm.).

P made reference, nonetheless, to the changes registered in the teachers' essays after reflection, which, in his view are an indicator that they benefit greatly from the INSET they take.

On the other hand, LEA4 run courses for MFL teachers during working days so as to benefit those teachers who have children. The aim of their training is basically the individuals' professional development, but above all, the improvement of the quality of education, as well as the attainment and aspiration of pupils' (T). Therefore, the success of the service is measured by the improvement of standards of achievements, and the change of ethos in schools. The view was that LEA4 did not monitor the attendance of MFL teachers at INSET because that was a responsibility which schools ought to take.

Finally, for P (like for Interviewee N in Liverpool), an ideal INSET is that which 'implements some of the statutes that have been passed in recent years, which allow everybody a certain amount of training every few years' (P). The perfect/ideal INSET, would be,

*'...Flexible to respond to the needs of individual teachers, of schools, to the priorities of the LEA and the priorities of the government...'*

(Subject P, U5, Birm.).

This section has examined the situation of Secondary Teachers' professional development (i.e. INSET/CPD) in Birmingham. It has demonstrated how INSET/CPD may be succeeded through effective modes (i.e., interactional (I)) of INSET (see Fig.7 in 3.4) (rather than T or B), which include partnership schemes between schools and the diverse providers of the service (e.g., HEIs, LEAs, etc.). In the best interest of staff development, two main projects were found to be operating in the Midlands: one, the Academy; the other, the Fellowship project. Through efficient partnership among providers, it has been also demonstrated that schools working together in clusters can buy INSET at a saving on programmes commonly needed. This can be arranged in subject-specific areas. Regrettably enough, this did not seem to be working so effectively in MFL. The section has also highlighted the importance of motivating teachers to undertake INSET/CPD throughout their lives, both, at prior education and formal INSET level. Within the latter, the LEA and HEI play outstanding joint roles as providers of the service and by accrediting all work that teachers do. The last part (fourth) of this chapter explores INSET in Wales.



## **5.4 WALES: CARDIFF AND SWANSEA**

A fifth small-scale study was based in Wales, specifically in Swansea and Cardiff. Case material was placed in context with information gathered from primary data: e.g. interviews, on which this section heavily relies. A cross-section of clients of the service complements this technique by means of questionnaires, along with secondary resources in the form of documents.

### **5.4.1 PROVIDERS OF INSET IN WALES**

To gain an initial picture of the situation of INSET in Wales, three semi-structured interviews were held over the telephone with Teacher Trainers from two Universities, that is, U6 in Swansea with Interviewee Q, the other, U7 in Cardiff with Interviewee R. A third interview was carried out with an officer of a LEA (LEA5 in Cardiff) (S) (see Fig.14 below). Participants were encouraged to talk on topics about which they had most to say and which would have been, perhaps, more difficult to tackle were the interviews face to face.

Close reading of interviews' transcripts highlighted the main issues concerning the situation of INSET/CPD in Wales. Thus, this technique provides a valuable source of background information.

#### **Interviewees' Profiles**

**SUBJECT Q:** As Fig. 14 illustrates below, Subject Q from U6 in Swansea majored in Physics and Maths during his Initial Training and he also held a Diploma in Education. He taught in schools for 16 years and then became an ITT trainer. He was also involved with Higher Degrees training for some 10 years. At the time of this interview, Q was the Director of the Graduate Studies in U6. He had been its Director for about 3 years.

**SUBJECT R:** R majored in Sport Science and Sociology in his undergraduate career. He initially delivered management modules to teachers of Primary and Secondary Schools, to eventually become a secondary teacher trainer and university lecturer for some 13 years. At the time of this interview (1998), he was the Head of the School of Graduate Continuing Education within the Faculty of Education and Sport in U7 in Wales. He was also Head of School, Head of Department, and Manager of Graduate Studies. As part of his duties, he was responsible for the management of a number of post-degree programmes in education and Sport, and co-ordinated

research as well (see Fig.14 below). He had been in that position since the school was developed, i.e., 1994.

SUMMARY OF INTERVIEWEES' PROFILES IN WALES

Subject	Major area	Teaching. experience (in years)	(Current) Role	Experiiece in INSET (in years)	Training prior to this role	Time of interv. (h/mins)	Year of Sample
Q University (6) in Swansea	Physics & Maths	16 years	Director of Graduate Studies (UDE)	10 years	-non specific, -Professional Qualifications	25'	1998
R  University (7) in Cardiff	Sport, Science and Sociology	13 years	-Director of Grad. Contg. Education in Faculty of Education and Sport -HoD/Head of School -Manager of Graduate Stds	4 years	-Prof.Qualifs Research Univ. Exeter -Writer Post- graduate programs	1h	1998
S LEA 5 in Cardiff	English	16 years	Assistant Director of LEA5	12 years	Prof. Qualifs	55'	1998
Total						2h.20'	

Fig. 14

He had done post-graduate research in the University of Exeter as part of CPD and had also been heavily involved in writing a number of post-graduate programmes for professional organisations like the National Coaching Centre and also for one other University in Cardiff.

**SUBJECT S:** Subject S, on the other hand, majored in English during his IT (see Fig. 14 above). When he was a teacher, he started taking part in INSET and eventually gained promotion. It was then that he decided to get involved in INSET rather than being a Head teacher or expecting other type of promotion in the school. He had been a teacher trainer for about 12 years. At the time of this interview S was the Assistant Director of LEA 5. He had been in that position for some 4 years (see Fig. 14 above).

Accounts of the interviewees about INSET in U6, U7, and LEA 5, cross-checked with documentary information follow.



#### **5.4.1.i UNIVERSITY- BASED INSET (UBI) in WALES**

As in other universities investigated in England, U6 in Swansea ran formal and less formal INSET. An overlap was recognised to occur at some point between the courses that have a 'modular character', with modules or higher degrees. Q ran three different kinds of INSET, that is: on the University premises; in out-reach courses in the schools; and overseas (e.g. M Ed. in Athens). Programmes run continuously throughout the year, during term time and also during weekends (30 per year).

In U7 in Cardiff, the policies for INSET were very much in line with the responses from the recent Sunderland Report linked to CPD and Life Long Learning (R). The co-ordination of INSET in the UDE is done through the Graduate and Continuing Education for All Programmes. On-going service of secondary education, particularly PE and Art are offered. Courses tended to be towards Primary Education and General Area of Education and Management, as well as School Improvement. Long courses, post-graduate programmes, diplomas, etc., ran through the year in 2 semesters, while short courses, like in other universities investigated were provided throughout the year, and varied from a day to 8 weeks long.

According to the interviewees, U6 & U7 operate in similar ways to the universities in England. They were very committed to developing partnership with others, particularly with their partner schools, by accreditation of teachers who took INSET with LEA's tutors (like in Birmingham), thus resembling the interactional mode of INSET/CPD (I) referred to throughout this thesis (see 3.4 & Ap.E3).

Partnership appeared, however, to be more generous in U7 in Cardiff than in U6 in Swansea since substantial guarantees (discounts / reductions) were available to teachers of partner schools. In U7, fees were reduced more than in other universities (20%) for short courses; and free first year was given for longer courses e.g. part-timers paid only £400 fee. Master degrees were offered the first year free, the second year half price, but in the third year full fees had to be paid (Q) by the teachers. Also they worked on a large scale in partnership with LEAs, with short courses at a discount, particularly on literacy. In return for the ITT partnership contract, rates were reduced and incentives offered for CPD through the post-graduate degree programmes. Besides the financial advantages that partnership brings to schools, INSET gave teachers opportunity for reflection on practice, accreditation, training, and consultancy. Since one of their major aims was working on the notion of the reflective practitioner, and in an attempt to match theory with practice, they developed techniques to make teachers move away from a directive to a more facilitating approach (R).

In line with English Universities, the CPD courses in Wales focused on Educational Management (due to the large demand), and on Special Needs, with a 'small focus on selective subjects' (Q). U6 in Swansea emphasised the generic core modules with some specialism added, while U7 focus more on PE (R).

Teachers in U7 in Cardiff attended taught day courses leading mostly to qualifications (see Clients of INSET, 5.4 below). At the time of this research, there were over 200 teachers taking long-term courses in U7, especially Masters programmes on a part-time basis. This was the result of the large-scale partnership that the university was engaged in with over 300 partner schools. In Swansea, on the other hand, teachers had special preference for CPD on weekends and holidays.

The two university CPD departments would like to think that they meet the teachers' needs. U7 from Cardiff, in particular, seemed to meet the teachers' needs more substantially and effectively than U6 from Swansea by means of bottom-up (B) and top-down (T) models (see 3.4).

The University of Swansea appeared to have a somehow directive (T) CPD style. Despite the inclusion of questionnaires filled by the clients for needs' assessment, a final decision was, ultimately, made in schools by a Course Board consisting of LEA's representative and Head (Q). A bit more democratically, U7 tried to focus and plan the courses according to the needs' analysis of a paper-based confidential evaluation form. They asked LEAs and schools specifically for INSET co-operation on what they liked, needed, etc. (B model). As learnt from the evaluation, INSET affects the teachers' practice and contributes to their staff development on the basis of long/short courses structures. The teachers' profile, progress and up grading were monitored (like in Liverpool). Some of the trainees had become Head teachers or Deputy heads, etc., as a direct result of having been engaged in the courses. Some others were prepared for Inspections or Managerial positions in their schools (R).

In other respects, there was not much evidence of any follow-up for the INSET courses in U7. This important step appeared to come into view very seldom and depended upon the nature of the courses. Others, the post-graduate Degree in Mentoring, for example, had implicitly a contact time to go out into the school, observed the teachers and analysed their practice with some feedback. Teachers monitored and reported it through reflective commentary and writing up of assignments. But there was no follow-up beyond that. As a result, R was aware that INSET was still a developing area in U7, and that 'usually courses stood alone' (R). Likewise, there was little evidence of evaluation and follow up for INSET in U6 in Swansea. The former was only made under specific requests for the teachers/trainees to do a particular form of development (Q). In



those cases, teachers evaluated the impact of the change in the schools, wrote about it in their dissertations/theses, and were assessed for that. But there was no visible follow up procedures in their INSET agenda.

Q and R also mentioned that teachers' preference for venues for INSET differed in the two universities. In Swansea they liked a mixture of university premises and hotels, the latter partly because of the change and comfort involved (Q). Differently, in Cardiff teachers tended to incline for a series of distance learning courses using the Internet, as well as courses in clusters of schools (R). The key elements for an ideal form of INSET would be 'accessibility and ease of access' with

*'Effective delivery of material which would change practice whether it is face to face lecturing; a mixture of face to face lecturing and appropriate supporting resources being hard copy or copy which is CD-ROM-e-mail'.*

(Subject R, U7 in Cardiff).

Finally, it was mentioned that in an effort to modernise the system, U7 was moving more and more away from the formal teaching process by using its own web site for short course materials delivery. The modules were being piloted at the time of this interview, and they were expected to be broadly used at mid/end 1998.

#### **5.4.1.ii LEA-BASED INSET (LBI) IN WALES**

According to Interviewee S from Cardiff (see Fig.14 above), there are 22 LEAs in Wales, LEA5 being the largest.

LEA5 consists of 31 staff: 13 advisers, 2 co-ordinators and 16 advisory teachers. As its counterparts in England, LEA5 provides advice, guidance and training material, but it is the schools that decide on the courses. The authority's job is to have an overview of the subject; to plan developments; and mainly, to support the schools' co-ordinators, and individual staff work towards those ends. There is a committee consisting of about 9 people, e.g. Advisors, Head teachers and one Union representative which meets and discusses about the INSET programme and particularly the budget. The authority works with 145 schools located within the whole area of Cardiff. The pupils are aged 3 to 19 with about 2,770 teachers, including part-timers. Confirming R's statement (trainer from U7 in Cardiff), officer S (from LEA5) claimed that they, in partnership, set up a scheme for the teachers to enrol at a local Institute of HE and read for higher qualifications as part of INSET.

## Inset

Broadly speaking, it could be said that LEA5 and local universities in Cardiff were doing two different things, but that they were not competitors or rivals (like in the NE and NW of England). As in other regions investigated, and matching the Review of Literature, LEA5 in Wales ran short courses looking at 'specific issues' (S) while the Universities, on the whole, were running longer courses leading to qualifications. There existed three strands concerning INSET, the central programme based on INSET needs analysis of schools, with a strong focus on subject specific areas, a second on whole school issues. There was an additional range of courses on management, every day, all year long (S). The courses were being planned for all teachers in each specialist area, for the equivalent of 2 days training a year, although in different categories: 1) Newly Qualified Teachers; 2) Middle Managers (HoDs in secondary schools; and Curriculum leaders in Primary Schools); 3) INSET for Middle Managers who wish to become Senior Managers, Deputy heads; Head teachers, and 4) for New Head teachers.

Teachers attended on average one LEA's course a term, in the Teachers' Centre, all on working days. LEA's INSET might also be a contribution to gaining a qualification with a HEI by doing some kind of training, projects, etc. According to interviewee S, the authority did not sponsor teachers for post-graduate studies at the time (S). Though, the survey would show otherwise (21%) (see Table 4, App. B).

Needs assessment was done against standardised models, e.g., through questionnaires filled in by schools and the Advisers, plus the diary of the courses. Both ways, in S's view were effective, though in practice, these democratic procedures appeared deceiving, a tension being inevitable between schools' and teachers' needs. Senior Management of the schools in a way, might have filtered out the teachers' preferences, as they were the ones who 'decided which courses they were going to support' (S). Not surprisingly, the INSET became directive sometimes. If the school had a particular need 'they would lead the teachers in that direction, whether they identified with it or not' (S). Serious concern was also manifested by interviewee S on the impact of the INSET. They questioned: 1) how much did the teachers actually adapt/change their practice when they went back to schools, and, 2) what would be the right advice they (the LEAs) ought to give to schools to allow for follow-up on the outcomes of INSET. Subject S suggested that INSET 'was more addressed to up-dating and sharing expertise, rather than developing the teachers' knowledge and expertise' (S).

The evaluation procedure took the form of questionnaires, following traditional patterns. Besides, as in LEA3 in Liverpool and LEA4 in Birmingham, the existence of a follow-up package for INSET



in the LEA's courses was verified. The course description would say from the beginning, how teachers could follow-up in the school what they had learnt in the course, or an Adviser or Advisory teacher did further work based on contents and needs. The LEAs good organisation and broad structures for INSET, which involved evaluation and follow-up procedures, might have attracted a good rating of attendance at INSET.

It was finally learnt from the methodologies that the LEA's courses were mostly run at the Teachers' Centre (despite the scarce facilities it had), with a small proportion being run at hotels. For Officer S, an ideal INSET would be 'a combination of things, because, as he put it

*'What teachers need is some presentation of new ideas or theory, with some practical application and feed-back on their performances'*

(Subject S, LEA5, W).

This concludes data gathered from the larger providers of INSET in Wales, that is, from HEI and LEAs. A small-scale survey in Cardiff with clients of INSET finalises this chapter, and the research in the UK (England and Wales).

#### **5.4.2 CLIENTS OF INSET IN WALES (see Tables 1-15 in App. B)**

This cross-section of teachers in Cardiff seeks, like in England, to explore some of their notions and views as clients of INSET/CPD, by drawing on semi-structured questionnaires. 100 postal questionnaires were administered, specifically in Cardiff, with only 30/30% returns.

Data drawn from questionnaires provided a great deal of information on four main aspects : 1) the teacher's background; 2) post-degree courses undertaken as part of INSET; 3) INSET taken soon before, or during the sample time, along with 4) the provision of INSET in their schools (SBI).

Since the reduced amount of returns was considered to under-represent the teaching population in Wales, the teachers involved in the survey were not seen as representatives of the profession. Instead, they were considered as individuals who had made decisions concerning their CPD along their careers partly, and who happened to be involved in INSET at the time of this survey in Wales. Thus the low return-rate may need to be taken into account in assessing what follows.

## OVERVIEW OF RESULTS

### 5.4.2.i TEACHERS AND INSET (see Tables 1-15 in App. B)

This sample in Cardiff consisted of Bachelor (27/67%) as well as Diploma and Certificate holders (10/25%) (see Table 1) who mostly graduated from college (23/77%) in Languages (8/27%), Sciences and other subject areas (18/59%) (see Table 2, App. B). Master degrees were held by a small few numbers of teachers (2/5%) before they got involved in INSET. Nevertheless, in this one sample, the findings disclosed that remarkably most of the teachers surveyed (20/67%) had undertaken post-graduate qualifications as part of INSET, particularly at Master degree level (20/80%) (see Table 3, App. B). This finding in Wales partly supports the statement that

*'Most teacher training (in England and Wales) is delivered in institutions of HE...'*

(Consultation Document: 'Teaching: High Status, High Standards, DfEE: April, 1998).

The high rate of Masters degree undertaken as part of INSET seem to have been facilitated by good chances for sponsorship (52.2% altogether) since secondment had dried up (1/5%) (see Table 5, App. B)). The impression derived from this survey was that the investment by the government in the teachers' education is more fairly balanced in Wales than in England. Teachers appear to have more compensation in the form of awards for professional development while on the jobs, not only at professional, but also at less formal/opportunistic level. As Table 6 (App. B) illustrates, the majority of teachers surveyed (22/73%) (70% in London) had attended or were involved in short courses at the sample time with the LEAs as major providers (49%) of the INSET.

Suggestions for this considerable involvement of teachers in INSET are : 1) that teachers in capital cities (e.g. London, and Cardiff) are more motivated by the schools/government to go out and take INSET; 2) that they may enjoy more opportunities for sponsorship/supply cover than teachers in non-urban areas of the UK. 3) But what came through more strongly was the suggestion (in Hypothesis 1) that teachers in urban areas of the UK have easier access to INSET (e.g. LEAs) than in non-urban areas (see for example the NE, 4, 4.4.1, in Ch.4). 4). Perhaps, the providers of INSET in Cardiff addressed the needs of the clients more comprehensively. 5) Most importantly, there existed a demarcation of roles among the INSET providers in Wales (like in London). As the data show, university provided the professional INSET (UBI), while LEAs provided the short term courses (LBI) (22/73%). One of the clients' claimed that



***'Post-graduate qualifications need to be University-based, while work on curriculum areas can be School-based or LEAs...'***

(Subject 22 W).

This demarcation of roles seems to explain the small involvement of UDEs in courses other than post graduate/higher awards (e.g. short-term or out-reach courses). Not surprisingly, UBI was the typology least favoured by the teachers (4/13%) in this research in Cardiff (the opposite was true in England). Despite percentages, a few teachers gave some value to UBI. They indicated in the questionnaire that 'this (UBI) includes more up to date information, there is chance to meet new people (S8 W) and it provides plenty of time to reflect on school, for conversation at a higher level (S15 W). UBI also gives teachers the opportunity to bounce ideas off a broader range of people (S18W) and gives a wider perspective (S19 W). Some of the teachers surveyed (8/58%) gave the university as the best partner of schools for professional INSET in return for its ITT service. Schools had joint INSET with the Universities to which the teachers were allowed access if required' (S22 W), 'although attendance is not always compulsory' (S12 W). University sent 'mentor students...' (S9 W) to schools, and as a repayment teachers could go on courses free of charge, at a discount (S11W) or at half price ... (S5 W), especially in UWIC (S18 W). The courses worked satisfactorily, particularly when they were taught at university venues.

In line with a T mode (see 3.4) description, short-term INSET appeared to be vastly monopolised by the LEAs (LBI) in Wales (11/49%). As expressed, LBI '...gives opportunities to meet colleagues from other schools to share ideas with (S3 W / S20 W), ...is extremely productive (S4 W)...and 'offers better food' (S5 W). The LEAs contribution to the CPD of teachers accredited them as minor partners, according to 2/14% of the surveyed (See Table 12, App. B). LEAs contribution was catalogued as effective (S25 W), because they organised a training initiative with a number of excellent courses (S4 W), especially in the Newport LEA (S4 W). Even so, only 11/36% of the respondents to the survey preferred it. A few schools enjoyed a double partnership with University and LEAs. But this three-party association, 'is only effective if staff take the opportunities offered' (S21 W), of course.

Based on the results, a progressive and futuristic vision based on higher investment in the teachers' continuing professional development/progression by schools and LEAs working together seemed to be occurring in Wales. This would ultimately benefit pupils' achievement and better outcomes in education. Accordingly, more than half of the clients surveyed (22/57%) attended INSET for professional advancement (PA) rather than for personal satisfaction (13/34%). Like in England, their specific goal in mind when they forwarded their professional development was possibly promotion. Improvement of performance at work was also regarded



by some as important because 'It is good to do a job better than yesterday' (S7 W); and learn new skills, given that some teachers, especially the youngest...still have a lot to learn' (S13 W). Some would attend external INSET to have some time far from schools, usually, 'a day off' (S6 W), or to have a break from SBI.

#### **5.4.2.ii SCHOOL-BASED INSET**

The situation of SBI in Cardiff was quite similar to that investigated in England. SBI had mostly an in-house provision (30/72%) with little central or external input (28% altogether).

The bolt-on INSET system (one of the requirements to become effective schools) was heavily detected here. 9/21% of central (LBI), and 2/5% of external (UBI) (see Table 9, App. B) INSET demonstrate how meaningless those provisions were in schools in Cardiff. This, together with little partnership (17/56%) of schools with others, made the SBI courses more frequent than the 5 compulsory days training for 26/87% of those surveyed (see Table 10, App. B). But again, attendance at SBI beyond the 5 days training was not compulsory, for 16/54% of the surveyees (see Table 11, App. B), and no more than 7/23% favoured it (see Tables 6 & 7, App. B). This seemed to happen because, as 19/47% of surveyees (see Table 13, App. B) revealed, SBI refers mostly to school related issues, and improvement/development (S1 W). The main orientations 'within this diversity/variety... (S23 W) were school policy (12/30%), and planning (6/15%), though, '...the focus will vary over a year' (S22 W). The variety of foci largely depended upon the schools' development plans, schools' orientation/focus (S2W); the target setting for school improvement...(S18W) and '...on when it occurs' (S24W). Above all, it depended on national pressures at work in/on schools, and to a great extent on the providers (like in England), and apparently to budget...' shortages (S21 W). Only 10/24% of the clients, mentioned that their schools addressed a mixture of foci '...everything' (S10W), 'all...foci (S8 W) from time to time' (S7 W), including methodology (5/12%) (see Table 14, App. B). In their accounts, methodology has special implications for planning, provision of resources, and schemes of work (S27 W). This focus 'reflects in, and improves the teachers' practice, as a direct result of the training' (S30 W), especially in the form of 'change of classroom management' (S2W/S5 W). It makes teachers implement methods learned and makes 'You aim to take some ideas on board / to 'attempt new initiatives' (S4W) '...through inspiration' (S15 W), if you consider them important' (S3 W). The methodology focus leads teachers to adapt ideas (S19 W) in 'various ways' (S8W), and 'rarely imposes change' (S22 W). Importantly, when courses on methodology occurred, monitoring and evaluating practice (S28 W) were involved.



As might be expected, 24/80% of the respondents recognised the quality of SBI and said that it was meeting their needs (see, Table 15, App. B) (68% in England), and 7/23% preferred it.

This seemed to be the result of a well-elaborated need's assessment procedure, which was categorised within bottom up (B) and top-down (T) models. Within them, confirmation/denial of the teachers' needs would happen. Where the B (bottom up) model operated teachers were positive that their needs were being taking into account in the planning of SBI. Schools used 'perceived needs' as a starting' point before the planning of INSET. The needs were related in the main to: 1) the school development plan/appropriate to development (S11 W); and 2) to their own personal needs (S2 W), although a blend of needs did not fully occur. There was some discussion and negotiation of needs in schools, instead of simple use of questionnaires. They '... identify individual teachers' needs through teachers requesting specific INSET. '...The staff discuss some of the issues they wish to have (S14 W). This way '...the subject leader has identified a pathway to cover the...capability' (S12 W), and meet the teachers' needs. The managers in the schools 'consider co-ordination of needs but also strengths and weaknesses (S15 W) in the process; they, within the school, identify needs for coming year' (S19 W), which presumably 'adhere to individual development plans/needs' (S21 W).

This attempt at a balance of needs in Cardiff might have prevented 'unwanted answers to unasked questions' (Easen, 1985:104). Most importantly, it might have given value to INSET, for the individuals' personal development (Pansagrau, 1984) and made true the statement that if planning is a follow up to the identification of needs, then, all parties ought to be involved in the planning; that is, clients, providers, and managers. There were declared exceptions, of course, where staff were not consulted (S4 W)) or just 'occasionally' (S5 W). A good number favoured SBI because

*'It (SBI) tends to be specific and relevant to the needs of the school' (S10 W/ S2 W/ S11 W). It covers more people (S17 W), and no travelling (S24 W/ S26 W) is involved'.*

### 5.4.3 Conclusions about INSET in Cardiff

Overall, the conclusion was that at the time of sampling, INSET in Cardiff was operating better than in the regions investigated in England.

The picture drawn from the sample was that teachers all had the guarantees and motivation needed to further their careers. The availability of sponsorship, supply cover, and some degree

of partnership facilitated it. Many of the individuals surveyed had furthered their careers by undertaking post-graduate qualifications as part of INSET and/or attended more short term/less formal INSET (e.g., LBI) before or during the sample time than did their counterparts in England.

In the survey, career development seemed to be systematic, and except in one case, the teachers appeared to place much value on professional development and less on remuneration increases. Those surveyed then might well be portrayed as career progression and vocation-orientated, rather than remuneration or job-satisfaction-orientated. They appeared to feel 'their way a step at a time' (Lyon & McCleary, 1980:104), to judge by their sense of professional progression. They could well belong to the category of 'extended professionals' who read professional literature, and get involved in INSET work, including theoretical courses (Hoyle, 1974). The construction of a reputation within the institutions and the move into positions of higher professional prestige appeared to be of utmost interest for them. Given more opportunities and motivation (e.g. financial), they would, perhaps, go for higher degrees, e.g. Ed Doctorates, or PhDs as the majority in the sample already had Masters. The situation seemed to be a bit different in England where a sense of low motivation and scepticism was detected by the teachers' views upon opportunities for CPD.

'Excellence in Schools' (1997:8), a summary document highlights the need for a 'new grade of Advanced Skills' (awarded by HEI), so that the best teachers can make progress in their careers while continuing to teach (ibid: 9.). They know that HEIs are the key to reaching those targets; that education is shaped by theory, which evolves continually, and that teachers do have to be up to date in new skills, techniques and knowledge. Thus the argument that HEI were in charge of supplying teachers with the necessary range of skills and experience demanded as to be a good/super teacher for the XXI century appeared to be taken seriously in Cardiff. Since many of the teachers attended the university for CPD, they were presumably up to date in scientific advances, methods and subject matter, and the professional INSET might well result in good learning standards and teaching skills, techniques, and knowledge for teachers.

Wales was seen as giving teachers the chance to go and educate themselves in the University, that has the knowledge and can give them the possibility to reflect on practice. Perhaps as a reflection of the aspirations of those in power, or even, the result of the cultural orientation of the country, individuals rather than masses seem to be the current orientation of CPD in Wales. Evidently, attention was drawn to the 'person' in the professional context. An indication of this is the number of teachers with Master Degrees as part of INSET. The government is aware of the need for CPD, and also of the fact that excellent, efficient and multi-dimensional teachers are impossible to get in the absence of CPD.



Nonetheless, contradicting the Review of the Literature on wide provision, this survey in Cardiff suggested that there was little/no place for other various providers of INSET (e.g., Examiners Board, Subject Associations, Private Consultants, etc.) apart from the conventional ones (HEI, LEAs). This seems to substantiate once more the view of some monopoly of the service by the LEAs, which, might well result in deprivation of teachers' rights of open access to (any kind of) INSET. An imbalance among central (e.g. LBI), external (UBI) and School-based INSET was thus envisaged. Respondents of this survey were possibly at a disadvantage in a variety of INSET if compared to the English ones who enjoyed various forms of INSET. As the surveys demonstrated, at least 6 providers of INSET were identified in England, but only two in Cardiff, namely, LEAs, and the University (the latter at degree level). The direct implication of this might well be that some foci of INSET were negligible for teachers, in favour of others, e.g. management and development, over all curriculum/subject and phase perspectives, given that variety is usually linked to the providers. This might be also seen as a bias against some providers, and therefore a lack of integration for a wider programme of INSET.

Positively, SBI in Cardiff was confirmed to be meeting the teachers' needs. There was no major variation of the general conception of an in-house provision, its foci depending (as in England) mostly on the providers, and they on partnership gained by involvement of schools with others (e.g., in ITT). Schools in Cardiff were doing well in their role as providers of improvement/development issues through SBI, while other providers were in charge of the other foci of INSET. Their different roles in CPD gave providers the character of partners rather than competitors.

Though the government in Wales was also trying to make effective the mechanisms to provide INSET for all, as an equal opportunity policy, this study concluded that there is still some room for improvement. It would be sensible, for example, to re-focus 'even more' on the teachers' personal and professional lives, in order to try to understand the nature and sources of the development of the teachers' thinking, action and craft-knowledge (Butt et al., 1990:256) (see Suggestions in 6. 3).

**How, do/will schools take advantage of the skills, abilities, and knowledge that teachers bring back after the training?** is another story, however.

Finally, schools in Cardiff seemed to be moving away from the school effectiveness paradigm, in order to achieve quality within the context of a national reform agenda. They were trying instead to blend the effectiveness and improvement approaches together. They seemed to work on centrally imposed change necessary to enhance students' outcomes by strengthening the work of

teachers through training, and above all, by linking classroom practice to whole-school purposes. In managerial terms, these strategies focused on the primacy of teaching and the creation of opportunities for teachers to feel more powerful and confident about their work. The schools appeared to be highly committed to the CPD of their staff, to inquiry and reflection, leadership, co-ordination and planning. Perhaps this successful scheme (mixture of school effectiveness/improvement)/mode of interactional INSET (I) used in Wales might serve the same purpose in other contexts with due interpretation and adaptations.

This was the extent of research in Wales. The next chapter deals with a summary of findings, conclusions/remarks, suggestions and the latest developments of INSET in England and Wales (UK).



## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **1. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS IN THE UK**

### **2. CONCLUDING REMARKS ON THE UK STUDY**

### **3. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

### **4. LATEST DEVELOPMENTS IN THE UK**

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#### **6.0 Preamble**

This chapter first summarises the findings about INSET in the UK context in response to the first research question of the study. In its second part, some concluding remarks on the study are drawn, while the third part states some suggestions for further research. The chapter finally explores recent developments having to do with INSET in England and Wales so as to establish further implications in other contexts (see 7.7).

As stated in Chapters 1 & 3, this study has aimed at understanding training developments, particularly INSET for secondary teachers in the UK, and to consider the applicability of lessons learnt in other contexts. With this in mind, five regions were sampled in the UK (England and Wales) from 1995 through to 1999. The intention was to observe changes and new developments occurring to INSET during the target time, to draw some significant remarks/conclusions and implications from them.

#### **6.1 SUMMARY AND SYNTHESIS OF MAIN FINDINGS**

In reading the following summary, it has to be borne in mind that this has been mostly an exploratory and descriptive study. From that perspective, an attempt has been made to answer the first research question (of 2) through three further subquestions (not included in 1.2) that help summarise the content of the study as a whole.

##### **First Research Question**

**What is the situation regarding In-service training (INSET) for secondary teachers in the UK?**

## **Subquestions**

- 1) How does the system work?
- 2) What are the outcomes from INSET?
- 3) What have been the significant changes and developments over the years of research?

In an attempt to claim reliability for the findings and results, interviews, observation and documentary analysis were heavily triangulated with a detailed statistical breakdown of the questionnaires' survey. The section to follow scrutinises the main features in the research, namely, policy (planning) and practice and within them indicators in the methods, particularly in the questionnaires and interview's schedule. The latter were both designed following the Review of the Literature content. Possible gaps, and (miss) matches will be identified and dealt with throughout this section.

## **OUTLINE OF FINDINGS**

Findings resulting from the fieldwork were roughly consistent in almost all aspects examined across the 5 geographical areas investigated in the UK. Nevertheless, given the inevitably limited size and exploratory aspect of the research (particularly the survey), the findings might be under-representing the countries in question (England and Wales). Thus they might be considered as a general illustration of the situation of INSET as viewed by some individuals as providers, and clients of the service. Despite this, some confidence could be placed in them. By the same token, the summary (6.1) and latest developments (6.4) in this chapter cannot be taken literally as examples of 'best practice' (given their pitfalls), but just as empirical findings consistent with well informed experience that, interpreted and adapted, could well be of some use in other contexts (see 7.7 in Ch. 7 below).

## **People in the research**

Findings dealing with the people in the research come first, so as to understand best their ideologies, conceptions, perceptions and experiences within the field of INSET/CPD.

Altogether, 20 subjects (including Officers from LEAs; Teacher Trainers from Universities, Subject Associations, Private Consultants; Deputies from schools and HoDs) were interviewed in the UK (17 in England, 3 in Wales) as trainers, providers/deliverers of INSET. The trainers were found to have different professional background and training, along with high levels of experience and expertise. They were college and university graduates from different subject areas, who held a variety of qualifications ranging from ITT to PhDs (see Figures 8,11, 12, 13 & 14 in Chapters 4 & 5), though little specialised training. This is because in practice, no particular training has been



institutionalised for teacher trainers in the UK. The trainers' involvement in INSET ranged from 3 through to 20 years or more. As planners, organisers and /or deliverers of INSET, they responded to semi-structured face-to-face or telephonic interviews. Their responses varied according to the institutions they worked in, and their roles within them. They all answered the first research-question (see above) and gave an insight into the sub-question: How does the system (INSET) work?

On the other hand, a limited sample of 192 individuals/teachers as clients of the service responded to a survey in the form of (semi) structured questionnaires with some open ended questions. From the background perspective, the survey revealed a teaching profession with graduate status, with very few exceptions. Most of the teachers surveyed held bachelor (BA/BSc/B Ed) (151/54%) or Certificate and Diploma (50/18%) qualifications (see Table 1, App. B) from University (88/46%) and College (95/49%) (see Table 2, App. B). The dominant group was mainly at B Ed level (47/17%) with very few PGCE holders (38/14%) before INSET. Masters were not so popular among teachers before they embarked in INSET (29/11%), but were so at post-graduate level. 46/57% out of the 67/35% teachers that undertook INSET went for this degree (see Table 3, App. B). As for major areas, half the sample consisted of sciences or art graduates (97/50%), while roughly the other half were graduates in languages (83/43%) and other subject areas (Others, 5/3%)(Table 2, App. B). Teachers, as clients of the service, responded to the first and second research questions. They also gave some insight into the second subquestion: What are the outcomes from INSET? Some overlap may well occur between the features (e.g. policy, (planning), and practice) and some of the variables (e.g. planning: budget; and practice: budget). This will be dealt with throughout the section. Findings are as follows.

### **6.1.1. POLICY**

Since there were no clear aims and purposes underpinning INSET, the suggestion was that INSET is established primarily to up-date, train and feed teachers in new developments having to do with changes and reforms. But it does not always have to do with skills, knowledge or especially the subject the teachers were initially trained for. Given that INSET, particularly the formal type, seems to have little significance in the teachers' professional life, they can take part in it at any time it suits them. The policy seems to be less flexible when it comes to short-term courses, seminars, workshops, etc., which are exam-related, or focused on new educational changes, OFSTED, or the National Curriculum.



This study confirmed the Literature Review finding that INSET is not compulsory in England and Wales. Pressure/advice on teachers to take INSET, however, become clear under certain conditions: 1) before OFSTED inspections, 2) when teachers do not have a graduate status or, 3) when they have been trained abroad. No mandatory/official policies were identified for INSET, especially concerning attendance, which was voluntary in most of the cases (excepting the SBI 5 compulsory days training). It is thus up to schools to state their own policies and meet the needs of their own teaching staff. Data suggest that the policies were clear about LEAs and HEIs working with schools in the provision of INSET. Nonetheless, these are not put into practice in some instances, as LEAs and Universities do not frequently provide the service readily, due to budget shortages affecting provision. The LEAs as major providers of short term/central training, and the Universities of (longer)/external award bearing courses are sometimes partners though they may become competitors to provide the service and to earn INSET funds from schools. This is not considered wrong because competition between trainers may well be cost effective because it promotes quality, as well as a drop in costs. Partnership between providers was more widely observed in London, Birmingham, and to some extent in Wales with excellent outcomes, whereas providers were strong competitors in the NE and NW of England.

At the outset, two main types of INSET/CPD seemed identifiable according to the curriculum/content, namely: 1) formal, 2) less formal. In line with Williams' (1982) findings, a third type seemed to emerge timidly throughout the study, namely: opportunistic, (opportunistic staff development according to Williams' (1982)) yet there was no a clear delimitation between this and the less formal one. In line with the policy, universities are in charge of formal INSET and usually confer awards, while the less formal/opportunistic training are provided by the LEAs; private consultants; subject association; and schools themselves (e.g. SBI). These types of INSET operated with T, B, and seldom with I modes (see 3.4, Ap.E3). On the other hand, the policies were seen as clear concerning providers. The provision then depends on the provider (e.g. LBI, UBU, SBI, associations, etc) and the funding particularly in schools and LEAs. INSET is generally placed in a competitive market from which the schools can shop around, according to the training body they prefer and the budget they have (LMS). Provided budget and/or partnership exist, teachers can enrol in any course they want. Attendance at external INSET (HEIs), however, is very much restricted to budget's availability, which impacts on supply cover, sponsorship, and /or secondment. Teachers who work in schools under LMS do not seem to have sufficient opportunities throughout their professional lives, if compared to GMS where LEAs still retain the moneys (e.g., London, Birmingham). Thus, the LMS scheme does not seem always to guarantee sufficient/varied INSET provision, as the INSET depends in many instances of those who are in charge of it.



Findings also revealed that due to the imminent dominance of a T mode in the field of INSET, there are no policies or standard models for the identification of needs, and that when this happens, such needs might well be filtered out by the providers. Consequently, some LEAs and schools fail in some instances to provide their teachers with the right typology and focus of INSET. This has also caused some imbalance in the service due to the monopoly by very few providers, depriving some teachers of equal opportunity, good quality, relevant training, and above all, of variety. There existed a policy concerning a standard evaluation for INSET, but not at all for a follow up to the courses. The latter was not a common practice in most of the institutions researched (except LEAs 3, 4, & 5), but the former was so in all of them. Finally, it was concluded that the TTA's policy during the last 5 years seemed to have been preparing school managers for leader/head-ship. As the target seems to have been already achieved, new TTA and GTC's targets for the new millennium seem to be finally the *teachers*.

### 6.1.2 PLANNING

Locally, advisers and advisory teachers in the LEAs, teacher trainers in the universities, and chairs in the subject associations were responsible for the planning and organisation of INSET. Deputy heads as INSET co-ordinators had this role in schools, whilst head teachers, governors, head of departments, and teachers were not much mentioned as involved in the planning procedures for INSET in schools; hence the existing gap between policy and practice. Short-term (less formal and opportunistic) INSET courses were found to be planned, from 3 hours through to 20 days in length, all depending on how intensive the courses are. The planning procedure appeared to be characterised sometimes by a lack of direction as well as little coherence and continuity in the programmes, particularly in LEAs and Subject Associations. As a result, INSET appeared to function more as an event than a process, operating within an imposed, and rather defective system, not always basing its planning upon the clients' needs, or following the corresponding steps.

Following the finding in the literature review and the two previous chapters (4 & 5), a two-dimensional model of operating INSET in the policy and practice domains would emerge as a result of comparison and gaps identified between them (see Fig. 15 below). First, a 6-step model can be seen to include: 1) (teacher's) needs identification; 2) planning (of the activity); 3) delivery (of the course); 4) implementation (of the theory, skills & knowledge learned); 5) evaluation (of the activity/trainer/trainee), and 6) follow-up (of outcomes of the course) with the trainee at its very heart (see Fig. 15 below) (5 steps for Blackburn & Moisan, 1986 and others).



STEPS FOR AN IDEAL INSET MODEL

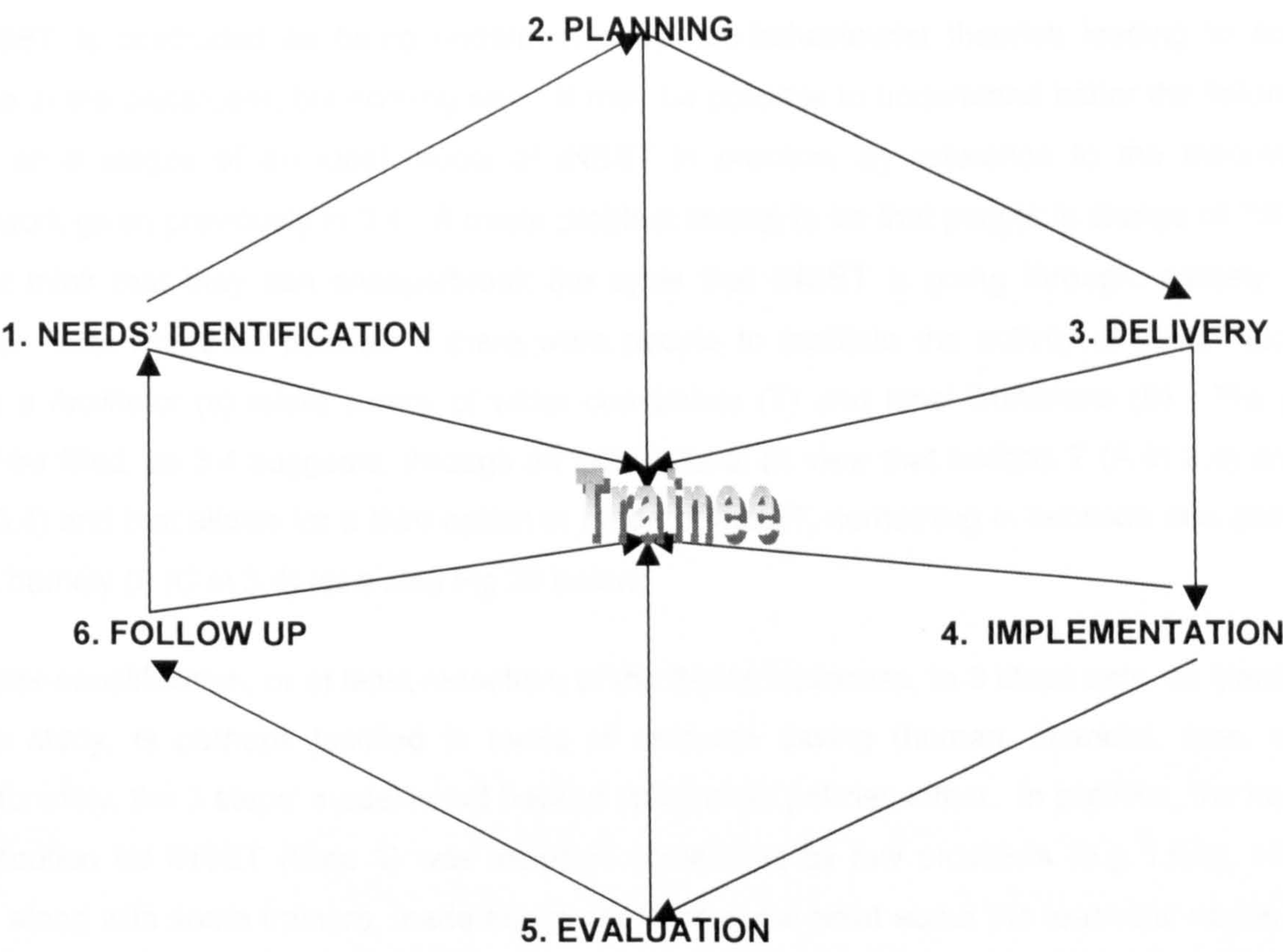


Fig. 15 Illustration from policy & practice.

This ideal 6–step model makes INSET a developmental bottom-up (B) *process* (see 3.4 above) that provides for (self) reflection of individual trainer/trainee's, team's and school's performance. Clearly, however, the key areas are in practice limited to only to three steps, namely: 2) planning, 3) delivery and 5) evaluation, as Fig. 16 shows below.

INSET MODEL IN PRACTICE

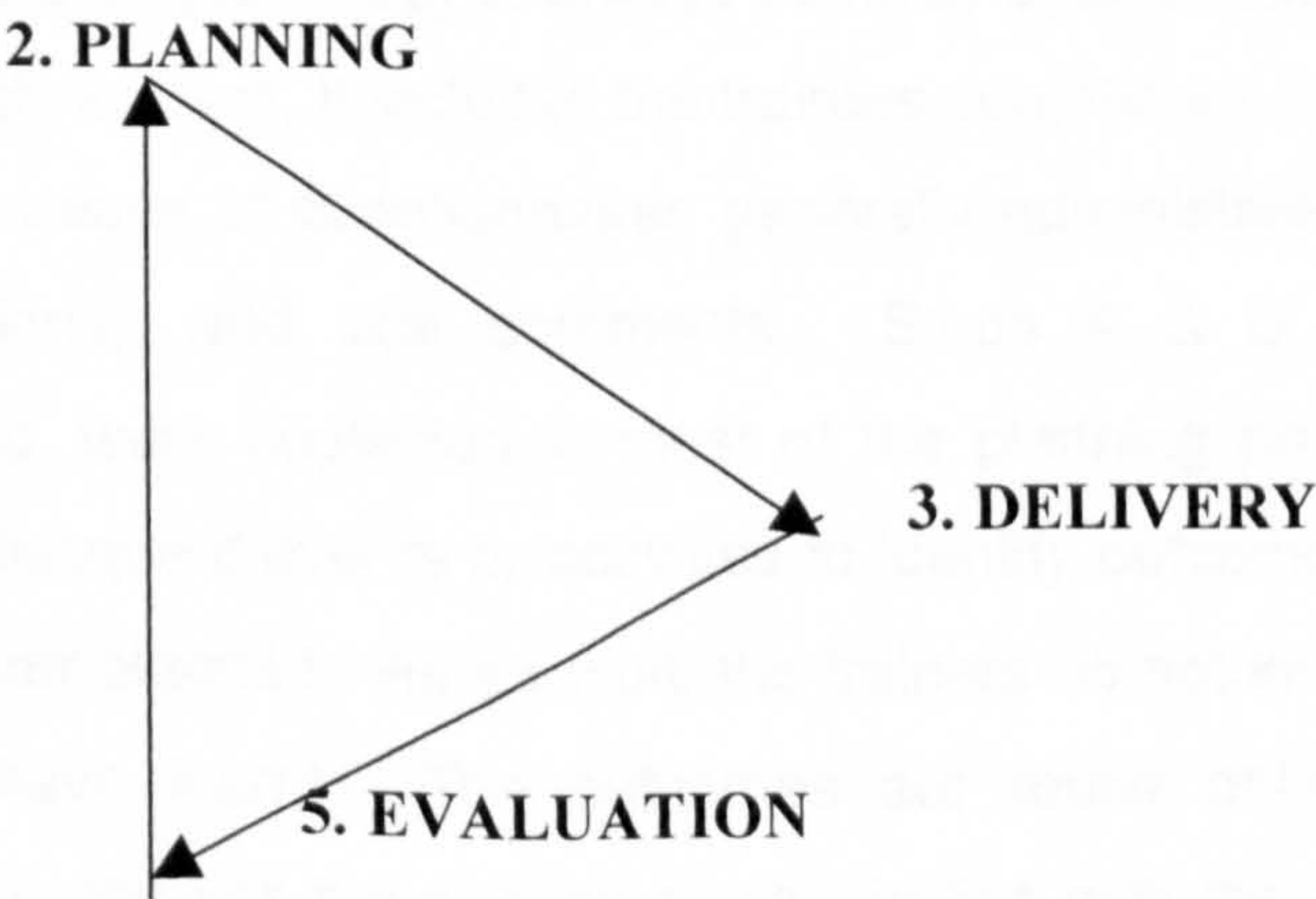


Fig. 16 Adaption from Practice



The 3-step model (Fig. 16) is a centralised T model imposed on the teachers (as 3.4 suggests above), who seem to have little or no saying, but are passive recipients of their own training. As it is, INSET is concluded as being underpinned by neo-behaviourist theories leading to some change in the classroom, but nothing else. It may be possible to understand better the failure to follow all 6 stages of an ideal model of INSET in practice, by reference to the theoretical framework given previously in 3.4. A major problem seems to be that people in charge of INSET do not think that they can change/break the cycle that INSET is going through, namely T-B modes. That would be possible if there were people to facilitate the activity of INSET locally where a *facilitator* (s) is/are aware of wider constraints (T) and local limitations (B). The gap would be filled, as 3.4 suggests, through an interactional (I) view that bridges T (A in 3.4) and B (B in 3.4) and that allows for a third option of mode of INSET, something in between one and the other, namely (I) (C in 3.4) (see also Fig.20 below).

The over-simplification, or at least reduction, of the 6-step's process, to 3 steps only, as identified in this study, is perhaps justified in terms of resource saving (human, financial, time, etc.). Unfortunately, the 3 steps' model is not backed up by clear policies either. In practice, the needs' identification for INSET (Step 1) was included sometimes by few providers (e.g. LEAs, HEIs). They, along with some trainers, made assumptions at some point about the teachers' needs and planned INSET in advance, based mostly on factors such as 1) the political pressures and educational priorities of the moment; 2) National Curriculum prescriptions. 3) Along with these, particular interests of staff in the providing institutions might be seen as a factor affecting choices offered. When the needs identification was part of the planning procedure and it was put into practice, Top-Down (T) and Bottom-Up (B) models were used. Since the T model operated on a larger scale, the training appeared to be imposed and directive in many instances, as mentioned above. The B model made use of interviews, appraisal, and above all, of written evaluations.

Findings also made known that the evaluation (5th Step) is always planned against established standards; it is practically limited to the activity itself, it includes the trainers sometimes, but never the trainees (see Fig.15). It is done by means of questionnaires generally administered at the end of the courses (with few exceptions), and oral comments. Steps 4 & 6, namely implementation, and particularly follow-up, were neglected in most of the planning procedures consulted. There is no follow-up and subsequent events or activities to identify outcomes of the training simply because these are not/never planned. As a result, the trainers do not know if the teachers put into practice what they have learnt. The outcomes are found only by the inspections, perhaps a long time after the courses have taken place. In line with the literature review, there is not a law, an established requirement to follow INSET courses, nor does there

exist a formal model to do that. Thus it is left to schools to suggest whether the providers follow-up the courses or not. There is no evidence, either, to assure that when the follow-up is planned it occurs in practice.

### 6.1.3 PRACTICE

The statement has been made that 'theory without practice is arid...practice without theory is blind' (Gough, B & James, D, 1990:17). The second subquestion, **What are the outcomes from INSET** facilitates confrontation between these two elements, by analysing the survey's results.

#### The Survey

Through the analysis of evidence collected in the small-scale survey carried out with users/clients of the service in England and Wales, it was possible to detect some existing matches and gaps between the policy & practice trends in the field of INSET/CPD.

Data gathered corroborated that the aim of professionalisation of education largely advocated by politicians, training institutions and educators is occurring in practice in Wales, though to a less extent in England. Since INSET is not compulsory, and the purposes underpinning it are not evident and well defined, its importance appears limited/reduced in schools and among the clients of the service. The latter appears to affect attendance at some types of courses available for teachers.

#### Types of, and attendance at INSET

In the survey, there was some evidence of a huge variety of less formal and / or opportunistic INSET courses, as well as a broad range of award-bearing qualifications at post-graduate level to which the teachers had easy access as part of INSET (see Fig. 17 below). Nonetheless, very little involvement of secondary teachers was detected at formal/professional INSET level in England, the opposite being true in Wales. Out of 192 of those surveyed, roughly a third (67/35%) had furthered their careers through INSET. From them, a few had read for Master Degrees (46/57%) and for Certificates or Diplomas in Education (26/32%). Other than these degrees, higher qualifications in education were almost unmentioned, e.g. PhDs (5/6%).

These results were not surprising at all given the moderate interest and some limitations (e.g., sponsorship, secondment) for teachers to do so. The deficiency is much more evident in urban contexts, where, by contrast, opportunities abound. Interesting was the finding that teachers in small-size cities like Newcastle, Liverpool, and Cardiff were keener to read for professional



degrees (i.e. Master degrees), than those working in cosmopolitan cities like London or Manchester who would go for short-term/less formal or opportunistic INSET mostly. Reasons beyond that appeared to be: firstly, that INSET is not compulsory for teachers; secondly, the high financial costs involved in professional INSET as a result of the limited partnership of schools with external providers. Thirdly, a relative support for teachers in the form of sponsorship (40/20.8% altogether), and secondment (9/13.4%) (see Tables 4 & 5 in App. B) from the national and local government were ratified in this study, availability seeming to exceed demand. The LEAs were registered as the major sponsors of the teachers who undertake professional courses through INSET (21/32%=10.9%/192 altogether) followed by the schools (7/10%/67= 3.6%/192 altogether). The notion derived from the Review of the Literature was partly confirmed in relation to a lack of sufficient sponsorship and above all of secondment. Two questions arising here are:

**1) Do schools include professional INSET in the development plans at all? If yes, Where do the moneys devoted to INSET go?**

**2) Does the LMS' Scheme favour INSET at all?**

### **Recent attendance at INSET**

The picture concerning short-term courses (opportunistic/less formal INSET) was much more positive if compared to the formal/professional INSET. A good number of those surveyed (about two thirds (122/63% out of 192/100%)) were involved in INSET at the sample time, or had recently attended courses. Teachers from capital cities like London and Cardiff scored higher attendance (44/40% L ; 22/73% C) (See Table 6, App. B) at this type of INSET if compared with those working in other target smaller cities. Results showed that most of the teachers surveyed attended (not preferred) short-term INSET over the formal type (e.g., University's) for personal convenience, i.e. school workload, and family commitments. There were also cases where the clients considered attendance at the courses more as an obligation, requirement, or a professional duty rather than a voluntary decision, thus confirming the literature. Figures relating to less formal INSET confirmed that the types of course more largely attended by the clients are the LBI (31/25%) followed by the Examiner's Board (24/19%) apparently because the courses are free of charge. Meanwhile, the short-term or professional long University courses were hardly attended (17/13%) by the teachers surveyed for reasons of costs involved.

Typically enough, a good number of respondents of the survey (30/24%) (see Table 6, App. B) did not respond to the question of who was the provider of the INSET they had recently attended before the sample time. Therefore, reliability on findings is difficult to be claimed, in the absence

of interviews with those who did not answer to the question/No contestants in the survey, as the questionnaires were anonymous. Findings also suggested that, despite the Universities low scores as providers of short-term courses (17/13%), they are the top preference (62/28% of 192) among the clients (except Wales). In fact, it scored higher than SBI (57/26%) and LBI (45/20%) (see Table 7, App. B), among other things for the foci it taps (see summary in Fig. 17 below).

## **Focus of INSET and motivation for attendance**

The triangulation technique suggested that the INSET courses on offer are not always relevant to the teachers' skills, expertise, and, above all, to their classroom practice. As a result, not all teachers are particularly motivated to attend them.

The suggestion is that those who attend formal INSET in HEIs, for example, are motivated to do so for professional advancement (132/46%) (see Fig. 17 below) and for personal satisfaction (113/39%)(see Table 8, App. B) rather than for financial gains (6/2%). Teachers attend less formal/opportunistic INSET the most, even though they know the disadvantages. Among others, few gains out of less formal INSET are visible. The courses' focus obey prescriptions and so, are planned upon government pressures and national priorities, e.g., OFSTED, examination-related, updating of teachers in educational changes and policies, especially on the NC, school improvement/development, and providers' interests, rather than on actual individuals' needs. One highly positive finding about INSET was that the courses appear to highly empower and unite the teaching profession, above all when it is operated in the University (colleges were not mentioned) and in clusters of schools. Given reasons are that teachers are able to comment and share ideas, knowledge, values, and experiences, and to help one another in areas of common interest. Unfortunately, as was shown above, not many teachers in practice had the same opportunities to attend INSET on a short-term basis (13%), or at post-graduate qualification level as part of INSET (35%).

## **School-Based Inset**

All in all, SBI appears to be central in the CPD of teachers in the UK, as it tailors individuals' groups' and school's needs, wherein other providers have failed (i.e. HEI).

Cross-examination of questionnaires' results with interviews, and observation indicates that SBI has mostly a bolt-on system (156/58%), (especially in London & Wales) (see Table 9, App. B), with some central input from LEAs (58/22%), and external input particularly from the Exam Board (23/9%) and university (18/7%). Therefore, a gap was identified between theory (which advises input from University, LEAs and other many providers) and practice in this particular regard (see



Fig.17). Reasons beyond that seem to be that there is very little partnership of schools with external providers (64/33% altogether) (see Table 12, App. B) in some cases. According to some surveyees LBI (central INSET) was sometimes the only input they had, through the legal agreement (58/22%). SBI was provided more often than the 5 mandatory training days (in 98/50% of the cases consulted) (see Table 10, App. B) (only on the 5 days for 83/45% of the surveyees) (Table 10), perhaps as a compensation for the insufficient external provision. It is, nonetheless, the policy of some LEAs and schools to insist on the attendance at SBI beyond the 5 training days for those categories of teachers who hold no teaching qualifications or are trained abroad, according to 43/22% of the surveyees. Confirming the literature, the in-house provision is mostly school-improvement/development-related, focusing above all on school policy (113/34%) and planning (70/20%) (see Table 13, App. B). Only 57/17% of the teachers consulted maintained that SBI actually tackle teaching issues. When the focus is on methods, the training is recognised to have high implications for classroom practice, and in many of the surveyees' view (139/69%), this is a high motivation to attend it (see Table 14, App. B). The small input of UBI (18/7%) into SBI (See Table 9, App. B) appeared to be causing some imbalance in the foci of the courses, particularly on subject-specific provision, at the expense of more general developments. In the absence of immediate advantages, some teachers become sceptical and negative towards this provision. These results are, however, not reliable enough because of the high rate of NO Replies (NR) (22/36%) detected about this issue. Limited gains from SBI were also recognised by some of the trainers (especially from HEIs) involved in outreach courses in some instances. Finally, despite some failures in the SBI system, a great majority of those surveyed (135/71%) agreed that SBI meets their needs (see Table 15, App. B). This finding will be taken into account in the drawing of implications of INSET for policies in other contexts (see 7.7 below).

By and large, this section has illustrated the successes and deficiencies of the INSET system in the UK (England and Wales). It has suggested that despite broad opportunities for professional INSET/CPD (in HEIs), not many teachers attend the courses planned annually. This is because sponsorship, secondment and supply-cover are still an issue in the UK. As a result, improvement is needed in many areas of INSET, particularly at: 1) managerial level; 2) broader coverage of the service; 3) wider focus; 4) continuity in the programmes; 5) follow-up to the courses; 6) provision based on actual needs; and 7) provision of equal opportunities. It seems, however, to be just a question of time for this to happen, given that latest developments in education, such as the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), the National College for School Leadership, and the General Teaching Council in Education (GTC) will be taking care of it (see 6.3 below). Fig. 17 illustrates a summary of findings next.



# **MAIN FINDINGS& IDENTIFIED GAPS BETWEEN POLICY AND PRACTICE IN THE FIELD OF INSET IN THE UK**

POLICY	PLANNING	PRACTICE
<b>AIMS, PURPOSES:</b> Not clear 1.School development 2. Support long-term Prof. Training of teachers	Aims planned but not purposes <b>GAP.</b> ↓	Since policies not clear →. Aims: 1) YES, but 2) not always. Professionalisation occurs in Wales & England to a less extent
<b>ATTENDANCE:</b> No mandatory policy to attend it.  <b>Compulsory :</b> only for 22% Before OFSTED, non qualified status, trained abroad, new changes UP to schools to state own policies and meet T's needs	Planned as required. Literature Corroborated  ↓	INSET not compulsory → Its importance seemed limited and reduced, affecting 1) Attendance at professional INSET(only, 33% formal level , due costs, family commitments, workload (63% less formal). 2) Motivation: Prof. Advancement (46%). → YES, up to schools to state own policies and attend Ts' needs.
<b>PROVIDERS:</b> Clear policy: the LEAs and HEIs should be the main providers.	Planned accordingly. Literature corroborated  ↓	Not always providers were so ready to give the service, given financial constraints; lack of partnership; etc. Altogether LEAs (21%), HEI (14%) as providers.
<b>PARTNERSHIP:</b> There should exist, There is NO clear policy as to establish it formally	Courses sometimes planned in partnership Literature corroborated  ↓	Partnership between School-Other Providers was not very evident in practice. Only 33% and usually in EXCHANGE for ITT.
<b>TYPES:</b> Policy describes: <i>formal, less formal.</i> A third emerges <i>Opportunistic</i> , with no clear demarcation with the latter Formal. INSET is put in a competitive market where schools shop around freely for quality, costs effectiveness	Planned at formal, less formal and opportunistic level  In line with literature ↓	Typology depends on Provider UBI: formal & less formal.; LBI: less formal; opportunistic; Subject Assoc: less formal /opportunistic. →UBI mayor preference (28%) but less attended (14%) recently before sample time. →Some overlap of focus usually occurs
<b>FOCUS:</b> Policy says ought to address Teachers', groups' schools' needs.  Largely depends on Providers	Nearly never planned according to actual needs.  <b>GAP.</b> ↓	Mostly on School effective/improvement Seldom skills, knowledge, expertise, Ts graduated in. Focus depends on providers. → lack of coherence, content overlap sometimes as government pressurises. →GAP between provision and actual teachers' needs
<b>ACCESS:</b> Policy says Teachers can enrol at any time and for any type of INSET/CPD they prefer.	Planned according to Teachers' profile mostly <b>GAP</b> ↓	Ts cannot always enrol, due mostly to bureaucratic and financial constraints LMS' teachers have less access than GMS'. →PROVISION seems to exceed DEMAND
<b>NEEDS IDENTIFICATION:</b> No policy, no standard models for identification of needs. INSET planned in advance according to political pressures, NC's prescriptions. It has a T-D mode of operation (follows 3 steps model)	Very seldom planned  <b>GAP</b> ↓	T-D model prevails over B-U Needs are FILTERED OUT by providers (e.g., LEAs). INSET embraces random experiences; it is more an EVENT than process. →IMBALANCE in type, focus A 3 steps imposed T-D model widespread. B-U and/or Inter-actional models advised
<b>EVALUATION:</b> Policy says there must be one in All courses against standard models in most places	Always planned Literature Verified. ↓	Happens always in all settings researched
<b>FOLLOW-UP:</b> No policy to establish it formally, nor model to emulate, but suggested in Literature.	No planning (except rare cases)  Literature Verified	Happens very seldom in practice

Fig. 17



## 6.2 GENERAL REMARKS EMERGING FROM THE UK STUDY

This section in a way recaps what the study has been about, and to some extent tests the adequacy of existing theories about INSET against the data gathered.

As Fig. 17 shows above, this study has concentrated on features of policy, (planning) and practice relating to INSET/CPD in the UK. It has attempted to answer two broad research questions: 1) What is the situation regarding the In-service training for (especially secondary) teachers in the UK, and 2) What lessons can be learnt from the UK INSET system of possible applicability in other educational context. Two broad contextual questions have complemented the research questions and dealt with aspects of 1) motivation of teachers to attend the courses, and 2) the success of INSET in recruiting teachers in non-urban areas, or if INSET only serves central areas. This has been done through a triangulation method consisting of semi-structured interviews with providers/deliverers of INSET, a survey in the form of semi-structured questionnaires with the clients of the service, along with observation and documentary analysis. General remarks/conclusions concentrate on three main aspects: people in the research, INSET, and School-based INSET.

### People in the research

The deliverers of INSET in this survey were qualified professionals holders of qualifications varying from ITT to PhD with different experience and expertise in INSET. They usually represented an institution, e.g. HEIs, LEAs, etc., or were Private Consultants or Freelances. The clients of INSET, on the other hand, were science, art and language teachers with graduate status, mostly from college and university.

### INSET/CPD

From all the data sources and their triangulation, it emerged that the government provides varied opportunities for the teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) which teachers are (mostly) free to attend or not. INSET tends to be mostly a directive Top-down system imposed on teachers. Due to the centralised system of education operating in the UK, it is roughly consistent in all aspects examined in 5 geographical regions, namely: 1) the Northeast (Newcastle and rural areas); 2) Northwest (Manchester and Liverpool); 3) South (London); 4) Midlands (Birmingham) in England; along with 5) Cardiff and Swansea in Wales.

In line with predictions made through the Review of the Literature, INSET was not found to underpin clearly defined aims and purposes. Despite this, it was corroborated that it trains, updates, and feeds teachers in new developments, changes and educational reforms mostly.

By and large, the planners and providers of INSET are the LEAs, HEIs, subject associations, private agencies/consultants, freelances, that may become either partners or competitors in the provision of the service. Two types of INSET were mostly operating, namely, formal, and less formal, with a third possible variation, e.g., opportunistic (see 2. 8). Nonetheless there was no clear demarcation between the less formal and opportunistic, for short courses in the LEAs (less formal) may well have similar characteristics (e.g., length, focus, etc.) to, for example, those provided by the Examiner Board (EB) or Subject Associations (opportunistic), etc.

There was some criticism of staff development in terms of types of INSET provision and frequency, particularly concerning less formal INSET, given that it appears to embrace few and random experiences with little continuity.

Corroborating the Review of the Literature, attendance at INSET was found to be not compulsory for (all) teachers. Exceptions were made when the foci were NC, OFSTED, educational changes, examination related; when teachers were trained abroad, or held no graduate status. It is then up to schools to plan the central or external CPD for their staff through the school development plans (SDP), or within the institutions through SBI.

One common feature in the regions investigated was that in schools under LMS, INSET depends very much on the availability of funds for cover supply and sponsorship. When the INDEP includes INSET from the very beginning, teaching staff may have more opportunities for external INSET. Similarly, it appears as if schools, which have opted out from LEAs give more opportunities to their staff to go out for external INSET, as they have all the money. Interestingly, a good number of those surveyed (63%) attended less formal INSET mostly (e.g., in larger cities like London and Cardiff), especially the training delivered by the LEAs (25%). Other Providers (e.g., External Board, Subject Associations, etc.) also had good attendance, perhaps because this type of INSET tackles issues that others do not. At the other extreme, the formal/professional INSET experience, of which HEI is in charge, was shown to be attended only by a few surveyees (35%) apparently because of funding shortage, and the scarce partnership with schools. Though UBI was a major preference for the teachers (28%) over the other providers (SBI (26%) and LBI (20%)). It was also found that teachers are motivated to attend the formal INSET first of all for professional advancement (46%) and secondly for personal satisfaction (39%). The TTA



operates as quality controller and sometimes sponsor of this typology of INSET (see 6.4.1 below) with some success.

Data gathered also suggested that the main focus of the diverse types of INSET largely depend on the provider. Some typologies very much concentrate on school effectiveness/improvement and development, contents overlapping sometimes, due to government pressures, local and national priorities, and sometimes by the providers' own interest. Some lack of provision focusing, for example, on methodology and subject matter was evident, in spite of the implications which teachers acknowledged in the survey. A possible gap was then identified between provision and actual teachers' interests, preferences and needs. As a whole, the suggestion was that the contents of INSET ought to be more classroom-related and up-dated, as science, technology and education evolve continuously. This would be possible with a broader number of providers' participation in the CPD of teachers as to obviate the monopoly of certain providers of INSET (i.e. LEAs), which was notorious throughout this study. Among immediate consequences of the above, it is worth mentioning: 1) imbalance in the foci of the courses; 2) little/no opportunity for teachers to go out on INSET; 3) no variety of providers/choices.

There was also a possible gap between accounts in the literature and what happens in practice with the INSET process. According to the literature (Blackburn & Moisan, 1986), an ideal INSET process consists of 5 main steps: 1) needs' identification; 2) planning; 3) delivery; 4) evaluation; and 5) follow-up. However, an emerging model in this study would include one more step, that is, implementation (of the theory), 4<sup>th</sup> Step in Fig. 15 above. Yet, in practice, only three of these steps were operating in most of the courses investigated, that is, planning (2<sup>nd</sup> step), delivery (3<sup>rd</sup> step), and evaluation (5<sup>th</sup> step) (see Fig. 16 above). The oversimplification of the process seems to derive from the lack of clear policies for the functioning of the process as a whole. Given that the majority of courses had no follow-up included, there was no feeling of continuation of support and advice extending back into the classroom after the activity was over. It is well known that no monitoring or feed-back from the courses results in providers and clients being unaware of the impact of the courses. Above all, they cannot recognise whether the INSET makes any difference at all in the classroom. As a result: 1) Huntingdon's (1990) suggestion in the literature that the advisory teacher's time within the service level agreements of LEAs with schools ought to be used as follow-up to the courses (at least to the less formal) appears quite sensible. This would be, of course, a non-formal follow-up. 2) Since association of schools with external (UBI) was not significant in the diverse regions investigated (except in Manchester and to some extent in Cardiff), it was thought that partnership ought to be increased. That way, deliverers could more easily come (back) into schools and follow the teachers put into practice what they had learnt in



the courses. 3) INSET with clusters of schools might facilitate follow-up/feedback to the courses, through the observation technique and/or action research (see implications in 7.7 below).

Also, expectations from the Review of the Literature seemed to be contradicted in respect of needs' identification. Given that there were no specific policies, nor standard models for this identification, this step was omitted, in practice, in many instances. When needs were assessed, this was done mainly through a Top-down (T) model with subsequent consequences for individual teachers. Given that they are very seldom assisted in their expertise because their needs are ignored (knowledge, and skills through INSET), a Bottom-Up (B) model appears to be of utmost importance in the needs' identification process in practice. This would give teachers sense of ownership of the INSET they get, and INSET would be planned BY THE TEACHERS, and FOR THE TEACHERS, with the PUPILS' EDUCATION at heart. Since the issue of raising pupil's standards through INSET was not (always) explicit in the courses, the assumption could well be that schools are more interested in strengthening themselves as successful enterprises, rather than as educational institutions. Importantly, there was clear evidence of an evaluation procedure taking place in all cases consulted, though the follow-up to INSET was rare indeed.

In short, it appeared as if INSET was simply concentrating on the activity itself with no further assistance and feedback to the teachers after the courses finished. The over simplification of the process verified in this study, coupled with improvisation by some of the providers, made of INSET more an event than a process in some cases, as was maintained by some education commentators in the Review of the Literature. This model of INSET does not seem to be ideal, given that the whole process ought to include some practice backed up by the trainers. Echoing Tisher's et al. (1990) view, INSET might be enhanced by: 1) improving its general structure/organisation; 2) choosing the specific methods which would serve as the vehicle for training; and 3) involving evaluation and follow-up. The ideal model (see Fig. 15) might well punish schools' good economic arrangement. Meanwhile, the actual model's (planning, delivery & evaluation) (see Fig. 16 above) success appears to depend on its profitability, on good management of resources and perhaps on competitive grounds rather than on effectiveness. And the system seems to have become adept at this model!

## **School-based INSET**

SBI was also explored through a survey with clients of the service. It was disclosed that this type of INSET is one of the most successful and cost-effective teacher training schemes in the UK, for it tailors individuals' groups, and schools' needs, wherein other providers have failed. This success occurs in spite of the fact that schools are investing very little in the professional



education of their teaching staff. The latter was confirmed in the survey by a great majority of teachers sampled (156/68%) who claimed to have only the input of the INSET planned and delivered by the schools themselves (SBI).

Mostly an in-house INSET service (58% in the survey) with relatively scarce input from other providers (LBI, 22% LBI, (UBI, 7%) prevails in schools, as a result of the little partnership with external providers (33%). SBI occurs more often than the 5 mandatory training days (50%) and (with two twilight sessions), perhaps, to compensate teachers for the lack of opportunities to attend other types of INSET. As the observation technique showed, the INSET day may well become a short session delivered by middle management (deputy heads) and may focus mostly on school (development/improvement) issues. This is not wrong at all, but there always exists the risk that when SBI is the only type of INSET that teachers attend they may well be left out of the context of new developments and changes outside. Another potential drawback is that SBI may well be characterised by little variety and quality in its contents/foci. The make up of consumer-demand is quite interesting as most of the clients in the survey appeared to feel content with the service and acknowledged that it meets their needs.

It is believed, however, that with more external input, funding, training to deliverers, variety in foci, partnership, collegiality among providers, deliverers and clients of the service, along with much more research into methods, SBI may well have some bearing in other context (see 7.7 below). It is up to schools then, as individual institutions that are in charge of their own management and administration of resources, (particularly human, and financial), to try wisely to provide quality and variety to the CPD of their staff and raise their status. Planned at both applied and managerial level, INSET would help them also accomplish the mission of educating pupils with high standards because it is well known that an improved INSET system may well be directly measured by, and co-related with, the pupils' achievements in school. Finally, since some issues were felt to be actually unexplored, or to have little presence in the research literature some suggestions are made next to new researchers.

### **6.3 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

From the research described above a number of issues clearly suggest an agenda for further inquiry. Among these are the following:

- 1) A gap has been identified between teachers' interests, preferences, needs and actual provision of INSET. New research might look into these issues to identify solutions as to how the gap may be bridged.

2) It is a priority that new research should look into the Effectiveness of INSET. Effectiveness is something, which needs to be examined as a 'concept' at a starting point. WHAT do we mean by EFFECTIVENESS? WHAT INSET has to be EFFECTIVE AT? One way of evaluating the effectiveness of, making INSET more relevant, would be by, for example: 1) monitoring teaching methods in the classroom after the courses finish; 2) assessing processes that teachers put the children through; 3) monitoring pupils' evaluations, etc.; or 4) following up the changes in methods, and/or behaviour of teachers after INSET. If effectiveness is to be monitored and the outcomes assessed, it would be a good idea to establish first,

- **HOW** can such judgements be made?
- **AGAINST WHAT** criteria?, and
- **HOW** can judgements be recorded and presented?

In the process of measuring the effectiveness of INSET, more attention might be paid by researchers to DATA PROCESSING within the CLASSROOM, not just using tests to evaluate outcomes. A set of criteria might be used before and after the training in order to capture results. Likewise, if the 3-step INSET scheme identified in practice by this study is to become a 6-phase model for INSET courses to be more effectively related to the classroom, as Fig. 15 suggests, new criteria will have to be developed for assessing 'outcomes'. It is appropriate to improve the system, as inadequacies of the present system can be seen, for instance, in relation to debates about 'performance related pay'.

3) It would be beneficial for new research to try to link teachers' motivations and professional progression, with standards in education and pupils' achievements in schools. So long as criteria for assessing the latter were sufficiently broad (e.g. with social and value-added dimensions), this would avoid making the teachers feel undermined and/or under-represented when success is achieved, and would recognise teachers' contribution to education.

4) New research needs fully to involve the LEAs' Officers in a follow up of outcomes of the courses they provide for major impact and contribution to effectiveness. This way the service level agreement between schools and LEAs would extend beyond theory, and both would share mutual benefits from their association, e.g., they would, at least, know whether or not the INSET they provided made any difference at all in the classroom. This suggestion applies also to UBI, though major constraints would have to be overcome, e.g., financial, time, etc.



5) The increasingly successful SBI schemes would have an enhanced prospect of proliferating and influencing other contexts if (new) training methods in schools were further investigated. This would build upon teachers' relevant capabilities, and make more evident the impact of SBI and the commitment of teachers to the improvement of their own schools.

6) The 'extent to which' teachers' needs were being met by SBI was not investigated in depth in the present study. Further investigation is worthwhile in this connection as well. Following findings reported earlier in this chapter (see 6.1), further research might address the extent to which needs of individuals and groups can be blended with those of schools (which generally address management concerns) in evolving patterns of SBI (see Ap. E3). It would perhaps be a good idea to try the Inter-actional (I) mode of INSET suggested in 3.4 so as to get the ideal model of INSET illustrated in Fig.15 in Ch.6.

7) Since outcomes of the TTA INSET programmes were not available to be included in this study, as far as the present writer is aware, a new study might well be envisaged which might look into the effectiveness of the TTA in respect of its relevant aims, roles and functions.

8) More research ought to be done on the theoretical underpinning INSET/CPD in the UK, given that the interactional (I) mode is not actually mentioned in the literature. This important mode may well reconcile the gaps and deficiencies in the system.

9) Most importantly, the management modes and structures governing INSET/CPD need a more methodical and comprehensive insight. This would help contrasting contexts to share best features of policy, planning, and practice, to take into account common critical aspects, and above all, to be ready for change in the trend of globalisation.

The above suggestions might, perhaps, be more achievable if all the main educational organisations that are meant to be in charge of INSET in the UK (see 6.4 below) were involved. Meanwhile, the next section will try to answer the third subquestion of this chapter, that is,

**What have been the most significant changes and developments in the INSET/CPD of teachers over the years of this research?**

## **6.4. LATEST DEVELOPMENTS IN TEACHERS EDUCATION IN THE UK AND TARGETS FOR THE TWENTY FIRST CENTURY**

Together with the changes and reforms that have occurred in education during the last decade (e.g. 1988-1998), the setting up of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), and latterly of the General Teaching Council (GTC) and the National College for School Leadership (NCfSL), quite legitimately could be claimed to represent the most significant developments in the INSET/CPD field in the UK during the last 5 years. These developments have been intentionally chosen for inclusion at this late stage of the study as they certainly will bear some implications for education in other contexts, (e.g., in Colombia, see .7.7 below).

### **6.4.1 THE TEACHER TRAINING AGENCY (TTA)**

The TTA was legislated into existence on the 21st of September under the Educational Act 1994, by the then Secretary of State for Education, the Rt. Hon Gillian Shephard, MP. The agency represents a major innovation by a Conservative government in management of the national teaching force. It was established as authority and quality controller of the education of teachers in the UK. For concern of many, it is governed by a Board and its membership, 'with ministerial appointment', given that key stakeholders are not formally represented (Mahony, et al., 1997:1). The agency came into existence when many changes in ITT and CPD had taken place. Its initial concern was ITT but, soon after, its functions were broadened to all stages of teaching and teacher education. It was 'introduced into a context which many thought had already been reformed' (Mahony, et al., *ibid.*). As a result, its existence has not been fully justified by many, nor its purpose entirely clarified to date.

#### **Purpose of the agency**

As specified by the agency, its purpose is essentially to: 1) improve the quality of teaching; 2) raise the standards of teacher education and training; 3) promote teaching as a profession; 4) improve standards of pupils' achievement and the quality of their learning; and to, 5) advise the Secretary of State upon matters concerning teachers' education (CORPORATED PLAN, 1996: Promoting Excellence in teaching, 1996).

However, as interpreted by some of its sceptical users and detractors, (e.g., Mahony, et al.) who investigate into the TTA performance, the agency was actually established to: 1) introduce coherence into an uncoordinated system; 2) to enable more effective 'steering' of policy from the centre. 3) Above all, according to them, it was established as some of the long line of recent



initiatives designed to reduce the power of HEI in the education of teachers (Mahony, et al., 1997). Before its creation, the prediction by Jones & Moore ((1993:31) in Wilkin & Sankey, 1994:30) was that the TTA was designed to 1) have the power to determine what is an acceptable course leading to qualified teacher status (QTS), and hence, what is to be a teacher; 2) to regulate school/HE partnership; and to 3) play a powerful role in directing educational research funding, and thereby, to control the research community. The agency would bring together under its control a range of functions previously dispersed across a number of different institutions, thus centralising control over training, research funding, accreditation and evaluation. The prospect of a narrowly vocationalised skills training for teachers was seen 'as very real' (FEU, 1982) and the behavioural prescriptive character of the competence approach made it an ideal mechanism for control (Jones & Moore, 1993. In Wilkin & Sankey, 1994:30). It was pointed out however that the agency could not control SBI so it would be controlled externally. Thus, the schools would be administering the TTA's model within the broader context of constraints constructed by the government education policy (Moore, 1992:3 In Wilkin & Sankey, 1994). Some of these predictions might have come true.

The TTA chairman's, Mr. Clive Booth's account was that the agency has opened up many avenues for helping teachers to have the right training at the right time. Also, to ensure that pupils get the maximum benefit from their teachers' professional development (Parker, 1996:2), 'excellence being the common goal throughout education'. Within this framework, teachers are considered the cornerstone in educational success; without their help it would be impossible to move forward. In a kind of direct approach, the TTA has claimed to meet providers of training in HEIs, schools and LEAs, in order to discuss key issues on teachers' education and training. They consider that the involvement and collaboration from inside and outside the educational profession is crucial to success in the purposes and responsibilities of educating pupils with high standards. Interestingly, this implies effective partnership with others, an issue largely avoided by the agency in real practice.

## **Aims of the TTA**

Among its 7 general aims, 2 referred to the central topic of this study, namely: INSET/CPD. **Aim 4:** To promote well-targeted, effective and co-ordinated continuing professional development. **Aim 5:** To promote high quality teaching and teacher education through investigation and dissemination of key features of effective classroom and training practice (TTA Corporate Plan: Promoting high quality teaching and teacher education, 1995:7).



As regards Aim 4, the TTA priority within CPD has been to improve the service to ensure more direct impact on raising standards on pupils' performance. By initiative of the Secretary of State, the TTA reviewed the CPD of teachers in order to:

- 1) establish a professional development framework;
- 1) help schools and teachers' target and to monitor development and training effectively;
- 2) ensure that the focus at every point is on improving pupil's achievement;
- 3) provide a basis for professional recognition of the achievements of teachers.
- 5) ensure high quality training and secure effective use of teachers' time and maximum benefit to their pupils.

(Consultation Paper on Training for Serving Head teachers, TTA, November, 1996:1)

The CPD scheme has been developed by the TTA in consultation with teachers, Head teachers, professional and subject associations, LEAs, HEIs and others. This is targeted to make schools more effective, by including key elements, e.g., management, leader expertise, and teaching. This is supported by enthusiasts who point out that the agency pursued a kind of re-professionalisation in the teaching force through a huge number of initiatives and research projects, among others, on: improving the quality of school leadership and management.

A joint survey by the TTA/HEFCE showed that in 1996 there were 60,000 teachers on training funded by Subject Academic Category (SAC 11.2). From them, 33,000 were attributable to INSET, 16,000 reading for a Certificate or Diploma; 12,000 for a Masters degree; and 5,000 unspecified courses (Consultation Paper on Training for Serving Head-teachers, TTA, November, 1996:2). Target changes included new standards and qualifications for: Qualified Teacher Status (QTS); for Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators (SENCO); for the National Professional Qualification for Subject Leaders (NPQSL); and training for serving Head-teachers (Consultation Paper on Training for Serving Teachers, TTA: November, 1996:1,2). One other remarkable change by the TTA/OFSTED pointed to the National Professional Qualification Headship (NPQH) as a complement of HEADLAMP. Grants up to £2,500 were awarded for those preparing for Headship. Candidates were, still are asked to demonstrate leadership and management skills, abilities and understanding in relation to 5 areas prescribed by the agency (top-down style, see 3.4) . They had to apply from June 1997 through their LEAs or an NPQH Assessment Centre for selection, with high requirements to achieve it. This qualification was predicted to become a standard feature of the teaching profession in UK. It would ensure that future leaders get the best possible foundation for the continuous improvement of schools (National Professional Qualification Headship: 'High quality training for tomorrow school leaders' (1997), and set to make a radical impact on teaching and learning in the near future. The TTA currently celebrates the achievements of the last 4 years (1995-1999) especially the development (from scratch) of



three national head-ship training programmes (TTA Corporate Plan 1999-2002:1), today in hands of the DfEE.

To meet **Aim 5**, the TTA initiated research in 1995 into the factors that make good practice in the classroom teachers' effectiveness, numeracy and literacy being the targets. Grants were –still are- awarded for teachers interested in carrying out research in the classrooms, on a kind of reflective teaching model (TTA Corporate Plan: 'Promoting Excellence in teaching', 1996). As the TTA aim to improve leadership/headship has practically been achieved in England (not fully in Wales), the purpose for the new quinquennium is to 'raise standards in schools by attracting able and committed people to teaching and by improving the quality of teacher training' (TTA Corporate Plan 1999-2002:2). Regarding the latter, the overall *TTA new core aims* are principally to support the Government and others in wider initiatives to raise standards for teaching by:

- 1) helping to ensure that teachers in their induction year receive the structured support they need;
- 2) contributing to improving the knowledge, understanding and skills of serving teachers;
- 3) helping to secure teaching as an evidence and research-based profession

(TTA Corporate Plan 1999-2002:2)

In these directions, the agency has (re) introduced a statutory induction year for all those qualifying after May 1999, as a reflection of the last autumn consultation. This is implemented with collaboration of the LEAs, schools and HEIs. The agency will encourage and build on best practice in teaching and teacher training; vigorously will promote equal opportunities, and will work co-operatively with those inside and outside education, especially the General Teaching Council (GTC). It will secure and develop the necessary resources and staff to operate efficiently and effectively (ibid. pp: 3). To reach these aims, the DfEE is taking the lead in setting a coherent strategy for CPD, with the TTA as contributor in some areas (TTA, Corporate Plan, 1999-2002:14). The TTA will continue to fund high quality INSET courses that 'meet national priorities'. It will also give advice to Ministers and OFSTED on inspection matters if the Government approves the Green Paper proposal for a Code of Practice for publicly funded CPD (ibid.). Problems concerning INSET funding, bidding procedures, along with the TTA role in research have raised some concern among its detractors.

## TTA Funding

The TTA is usually funded by three sources: 1) the annual grant from the DfEE (will be adjusted according to outcomes of the quinquennial review); 2) the New Opportunities Fund (NOF) for work on ICT in subject teaching training; 3) the Welsh Office for teacher supply and recruitment is

the funding source for INSET in Wales. Expenditure is made by strategic aim as seen in the chart presenting the breakdown of programme expenditure for strategic aim for 1999-2000 on the Corporate Plan, 1999-2002. Funding amounts are not shown in the pie chart, but according to the literature, the TTA spends more than £200 million a year, of which, only a 9 to 10% of its budget is devoted yearly to INSET (Aim 4) (TTA Corporate Plan, 1999-2000:15; 19).

Targets are allocated on a three-year basis, and split by phase (primary and secondary) and by individual secondary subject. Targets for the first year, are firm; those for subsequent years are indicative. The driving force behind the allocation process is quality. Each provider is placed in one of five allocations categories (A-E) based on the quality of their training as measured by OFSTED inspection reports. The TTA try to ensure that an increasing proportion of places are allocated to high quality providers, defined as those in allocations categories A and B. If there is growth in the national targets, this is done by giving priority to bids for growth from category A & B providers. If there is no growth, places are taken away from providers in the lower categories for redistribution.

## **Funding for Secondary teachers' INSET**

By tradition, courses (mainly part-time, bearing awards) for secondary teachers have been funded by the HEFCE from the Subject Academic Category (SAC, 11.2). Administration, however, is mostly made by the TTA nowadays. The TTA INSET funds support the in-service training of teachers in England (the corresponding TTA Unit in Wales is funded by the Welsh Office). SAC funds are transferred to the TTA for INSET courses, (e.g. making 27.18 *million* in 1996). More recently, the funds for INSET amount around £21 million a year and are allocated to providers for teachers with Qualified Teacher Status (£160 *million* to providers of ITT for 2000/01 to 20002/03) (<http://www.teach-tta.gov.uk/itt/funding/index.htm>). The principles governing the use of the INSET budget are as follows:

- 1) it should be for the long-term development of the teaching profession;
- 2) it should support provision which contributes to school improvement by having a demonstrable impact on raising standards;
- 3) the allocation arrangements should promote high quality provision and be clear and open

(<http://www.teach-tta.gov.uk/inset/> ).

There is very little statistical evidence as to how much is actually spent on courses for *secondary teachers* due to factors such as



- 1) wide funding variation per capita;
- 2) the grants amounting to very little money, and
- 3) the many requirements to be eligible for them.

Besides, funding for INSET remains subject to the public expenditure review every year. For example, HEIs, as providers of INSET are subjected to : 1) allocation of funds by contracts, and depending on recruitment figures; 2) value for money; 3) quality; and, 4) geography. The extent, to which provision meets the criteria, depends on the general and/or specific funding (Proposals Paper for Future Use of the TTA INSET funding, TTA, September 1996:5).

Bassey (1998) reported about the TTA bidding procedure for existing providers ('TTA funds folds up the INSET courses for 40% of Teachers studying in Higher education in 1997', in BERA, 1997). He accounted that as a result of the bidding, 36 (of the 75) universities and colleges in England providing INSET in 1997/98 'will no longer be state-funded for these courses by the year 2002'. Accordingly, £8.2 million (39% of total TTA expenditure on INSET 1997-1998 will be taken from institutions, for a total of 21.1 million altogether (BERA, Research Intelligence, (64) of May, 1998). A table in the document stipulated that the 39 existing providers had £16.3 millions (<http://www.bera.ac.uk/ri/no64/ri64tta.html>) nothing else.

The TTA INSET budget for 1998-99 could be revised to around the same amount, that is, £21.1 million (ibid.: para: 5). According to the bidding document 'Allocation of TTA INSET Funds: Annex B', out of 150 bidders, only 48 were approved in England for the allocation of funds for 1998-1999 and the two subsequent years (1998-2001). Numbers include 10 from wholly new providers and 5 from new partnership involving existing providers (Allocation of TTA INSET funds: Annex B: 1998: Para: 2). Annex A (ibid.) shows, that 33 existing providers had new allocations; while 36 institutions which were existing providers did not have any new at all.

In short, the total amount devoted to INSET was initially £25 million a year (ibid., para:3) in 1995, £27 millions in 1996, and £21 in subsequent years. Budget for 1999/2000 and 2000-2001 could not be determined at that stage (ibid. para: 6). Suggestions were that it could be the same as for 1998/99, with no increases at all. Neither was there any amount stipulated for 2001-2002 on the web pages consulted. Figures above seem to be a confirmation of the paradox (little) investment in INSET / (over-expected) outcomes in teachers' education by both government and teaching forces lately. Ms Anthea Millet, former Chief Executive of the TTA was aware of this and other problems before the setting up of the TTA and saw the teachers as victims of the system. In her opinion,

***'The trouble with teachers' In-service qualifications was that there was no clear direction, no structure of standards, no framework for progression... 'We must find ways of recognising high quality teachers and rewarding them accordingly...'***

(Low, George, 'Anthea's Challenge', Education Journal, December 1996: 24)

This is precisely the direction that the TTA is currently taking. It is foreseen that, if the New Labour government that is currently in power (with its intense campaigns for e.g., 'Excellence in Education' and 'No-one forgets a good teacher') continues monitoring the Agency's performance (in the belief that this does not always constitute a good model), the Agency will probably be forced to change and improve even more, especially, the relationship between activities and performance.

In spite of the fact that the outcome of a review of CPD funding is still pending (until the quinquennial review), the TTA will continue to fund high quality INSET courses, which 'meet national priorities'. The comment was made in July, 1999 that the 'TTA is closely involved with the New Opportunities' Fund (NOF) in delivery of the UK's biggest ever in-service training programme. Most importantly, that a £230 million programme aims to offer high quality training for all teachers in the use of ICT in subject teaching. They, on behalf of the NOF, will be responsible for quality assurance of the training provision in England and Wales (TTA Corporate Plan 1999-2002: 14). Besides, if the government decides to proceed with the Green Paper proposal for a Code of Practice for all publicly funded CPD, the agency will advice Ministers and OFSTED on the development of inspection arrangements reflecting the code (TTA, Corporate Plan, 1999-2000:14). The internet document 'Criteria for TTA INSET funding' (<http://www.teach-tta.uk/inset/criteria.htm>) (p: 1) informed that anyone wishing to be a provider of TTA INSET should meet the following criteria set out for the second interim bidding round for contracts commencing in 2000/2001:

TTA funded INSET should:

- 1) have as its main objective the improvement of pupil's performance through the improvement of school teachers' or head teachers' professional knowledge, understanding and skills and their effectiveness in teaching and/or leadership and management.
- 2) respond to identified training and development needs;
- 3) be subject to internal and external quality control and assurance procedures; and include mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating its impact on professional practice in schools;
- 4) lead to recognised professional or academic qualifications at post-graduate level;
- 5) be informed by the needs of schools or groups of schools and involve them in its development and delivery;
- 6) reflect up-to-date evidence from both research and inspection, and
- 7) develop school teachers' skills in using evidence and conducting research

(<http://www.teach-tta.uk/inset/criteria.htm>) as 13/1/2000.



The TTA funded INSET has been inspected by OFSTED since the autumn term 1988 (Webpage 'External Inspection by OFSTED' in (<http://www.teach-tta.gov.uk.inset/extinsp.htm>). The inspection aims to assess the quality of funded INSET for each of the providers in receipt of funding. After study of outcomes, the TTA appears to 'inform decisions regarding the future of INSET allocation' (<http://www.teach-tta.gov.uk.inset/extinsp.htm>). For the purpose of inspection, providers have the option to select the provision for inspection that 'best reflects the quality of the-service'. One further random selection is, however, made by the TTA/OFSTED for inspection in each case, the number of courses inspected being proportional to the level of funding awarded.

Finally, the TTA outcomes and achievements are not evident/widespread as this chapter is updated (November, 2000). Nonetheless, some available literature reads that according to a survey in 1996, most teachers on TTA-funded long-term INSET programmes would be finishing their courses by the end of 1999 (Para 20: 1996:6).

## **The TTA role in Research**

Having the establishment of a research agenda within its terms of reference, the TTA has concentrated upon a relatively narrow, although admittedly crucial range of topics. As observed in the Specification for the TTA Teacher Research Grants (1997, April, 10<sup>th</sup>), the projects concentrate on the TTA priorities, and are required to meet its criteria. As suggested above, eligibility for TTA funding is hard to achieve owing to the Agency's high requirements and expectations of its researchers, who were asked to disseminate results themselves in some instances. Nowadays this is done by the agency itself.

As a result of the TTA's prescriptive approach, research seems to be the area representing greatest dissatisfaction among most of the users (85%) and beneficiaries in Mahony's et al.(1997) survey. The number of grants for research, for example, seem to be limited to only 30 per year, and, according to some, amount only to a maximum of £2,000 per individual and £3,000 for collaborative proposals. Researchers seem to think that there are not many incentives for them in terms of professional achievement, because the Agency does not often promote CPD on a long-term basis as was initially understood. This view contradicts paragraph 7 of the Proposal Paper for Future Use of TTA INSET funding (September, 1996) which sets out that the TTA INSET funds should be targeted at a long-term development of teachers, and that provision must lead to recognised academic or professional qualifications at a post-entry level. It also seems to validate the argument of some of its detractors that the TTA was established, among other things, to reduce, to some extent, the power of HEI. Understandably, HEI, UDE especially, seem to have had the lowest opinion of the Agency's performance.



It is remarkable, for example, how, if 98% of HEIs in the UK were involved in the professional development of teachers by providing higher degrees, and if 80% accredited all or most of their CPD provision, they have been progressively weakened by the TTA's power. (Mahony, et al., 1997) suggest that the TTA has reduced their participation sometimes only to conference level. The TTA was evaluated as effective though less accountable (by 74% of HEIs, and 60% of LEAs), its most neglected area being the funding allocation (Mahony, et al., *ibid.*). But, perhaps, this is not a general opinion among teachers. HEIs' position about the agency is open, at some point. They think that the Agency ought to work in conjunction with the GTC. Many schools (excepting SCITT), on the other hand, belittle the Agency and argue that it ought to change its current form. They do not want it to continue as it is now. In the Mahony's, et al. research, for example, teachers claimed that schools were not very aware or involved in activities, nor kept in contact with the Agency. As a result, many of them are sceptical about its continuation and its relation in future with the GTC. Meanwhile the LEAs seem silent about it all.

In the web-site document 'Criteria for TTA-INSET funding', one of the mentioned criteria (7th in the list) for bidding for funding was to reflect up-to-date evidence from both research and inspection, and to develop school teachers' skills in using evidence and conducting research. The involvement of both relevant research and inspection information to support the aims and desired outcomes should be clear, and mention how the INSET will develop the teachers' skills in making effective use of research and other evidence and for engaging in research activity. For this purpose, bids should include: 1) evidence of intended use of particular research and inspection information to support course material; 2) to develop teachers' understanding in informing practice; 3) how these will encourage teachers to subsequently apply research skills and use inspection evidence in the classroom. In addition to this, details such as: aims, desired outcomes and target audience for modules or courses; length, structure, and content of each course or module, and modality (e.g. twilight session); and particular characteristics of the course methodology (e.g. tutor's visits to schools, action research, etc.) ought to be included. Finally, 'it is expected that wherever appropriate (<http://www.teach-tta.gov.uk/inset/criteria.htm>), provision will be closely related to the Government's professional standards of teachers and Head-teachers'.

The TTA is currently keen to support the government's intention to help to secure teaching as a research-based profession (Corporate Plan, 1999-2002:2). They are 'developing and funding research consortia of schools, HEIs and LEAs. They are also setting up a Teachers Panel to help ensure that teacher's perspectives are more effectively taken into account in educational research' (TTA, Corporate Plan, *ibid.*14). They will ensure that TTA INSET funding helps to raise



the quality of provision and increases its impact on standards of pupil achievement. Dissemination on the contribution of research evidence to the improvement of classroom practice, as well as findings on research into effective teaching using ICT in literacy and numeracy; and for April 2000 a wide range of conferences challenged the teachers' thinking about the use of research (TTA, Corporate Plan, 1999-2002:15).

The recently appointed chief executive (Ralph Tabberer) warns that teachers have to expect further radical changes in the profession in the next five years (2000-2004) ('New TTA chief calls for 'radical' change', TES(No 4355), December 17<sup>th</sup>, 1999). In response to the widespread rumour that the TTA will be closing down soon, Mr Tabberer, insisted that the 'training agency is safe'. The agency latest commitments will be on the core functions of: 1) recruitment, and 2) training of new teachers. Whilst, the GTC will have an advisory role on teacher training under the direction of Lord Puttman (see next section on GTC for expansion). In other words, the TTA exists to implement policies, and, ultimately, as its TTA executive says,

*'We've got a huge job to do in recapturing the whole image and reputation of the profession'.*

(Mr Ralph Tabberer, TES (4355), December 17<sup>th</sup>, 1999).

As a more approachable face and easy communicator for the agency, Mr Tabberer promised to 'let trainers train' and 'take the tension out' of the link between inspection reports and funding. Based on his previous and extensive experience with DfEE and OFSTED, and his friendship and old work experience with Lord Puttman (GTC's chief), they will work closely, as an advantage to the profession. It appears then that the last rites over the TTA and the prediction that it is only matter of time before the new General Teaching Council 'kills it off' are not substantially grounded.

#### **6.4.2 NATIONAL COLLEGE FOR SCHOOL LEADERSHIP (NCfSL)**

There is very little literature available upon the foundation of the College. According to the last Corporate Plan 1999-2002, previous Corporate Plans appear to have contained a strategic objective on improving the quality of school leadership and management. The TTA feels proud on the achievements in that area, especially during the past 4 years' (Booth, C & Millet, A, TTA Corporate Plan 1999-2002). The foreword of this very last Corporate Plan (ibid.) mentions that three national headship's training programmes have been the products of the TTA agency and others' efforts, but that it is the DfEE the one in charge of them nowadays. Both the GTC and the NCfSL have been the product of the Green Paper and the TTA will play a role in those projects as

to help in raising the standards of achievement in the British Schools (TTA Corporate Plan 1999-2002).

One final development in the INSET/CPD of teachers is the setting up of a General Teaching Council for Education as explored next.

### **6.4.3 GENERAL TEACHING COUNCIL (GTC)**

The National Union of Teachers in England had long ago (1962) called for a General Teaching Council (<http://www.teachers.org.uk/data/gtc.htm>). This dream seemed to come true, when in 1997 a latest project for a new development in education was launched by the Labour's party in England through the DfEE, namely: the General Teaching Council for Education (GTC). One separate Council is being currently (2000) established in Wales on the same basis as the one in England, and one other eventually in Northern Ireland. Scotland has had one already since 1966, and it will be taken as a model for others, at some point. A bit overlapping the TTA functions, the GTC in England has been set up by the year 2000 in an initial attempt:

- 1) to raise the status and standing of the teaching profession; and
- 2) to contribute to the raising of standards in education.

Its organisation has been characterised since its very beginning by mechanisms designed for broader consultation with the teaching profession than has been the case with the TTA. In an attempt to create a consensus, the DfEE in England issued in 1997 an initial Consultation Paper asking teachers for their views upon: 1) right roles; and 2) composition of the GTC. By April 1998, another Consultation Document was issued based on the teachers' responses in 1997. As a result of the two consultations, the Teaching and HE Bill legislation was drawn up after consideration of relevant teachers' suggestions, and it was before Parliament in 1999. A new document: 'The General Teaching Council: a brief guide for teachers, 1999' was issued by the DfEE. It contains brief information about what the GTC is, its definite role, funding, membership, and start-date. The project for the GTC sets out, among other things, the following:

#### **Aim and Purposes**

The GTC will set up a professional body to encourage all teachers to participate in the challenging programme of reform proposed in Excellence in Schools. As mentioned in magazines such as General Teaching Council: a brief Guide for teachers (DfEE, 1999) broader aims are:



- 1) to provide a voice for the teaching profession, a major new professional voice (Consultation Document, 1997, 1999);
- 2) to raise standards in education
- 3) to maintain and enhance the profession's high standards and conduct (Consultation Document, 1998); and
- 4) to enhance the public standing of teaching

(General Teaching Council: a brief guide for teachers (February, 1999))

## Role and Provisional Functions of the GTC

The main roles of the GTC will be those of motivator, adviser, controller, facilitator, appraiser, judge and enabler of teachers. It will advise the Secretary of State, and help judge situations relevant to teaching and teachers. The Council's key roles, however, will be to:

- 1) advise the government on professional issues, e.g. recruitment and supply, training and induction, professional development and conduct (The GTC: a brief guide for Teachers, 1999).
- 2) maintain a register of qualified teachers working in maintained schools.
- 3) be the arbiter for the 'new induction year' (deceased in 1992, and re-initiated again from 1999 onwards), which will be administered possibly by the LEAs, considered already as a 'new benchmark for entry to the profession.
- 4) be responsible for disciplinary actions against teachers for unacceptable professional conduct and incompetence. Child protection, however, will remain with the Secretary of State, advised by the GTC.

(GTC, Teaching: High Status, High Standards: General Teaching Council, A Consultation Document, 1998:5).

The Council will draw on a unique resource, that is, the experience of over 400,000 teachers, bringing a fresh and authoritative perspective (The GTC: a brief guide for Teachers, 1999). Above all,

*'the Council will help restore the morale of teachers, who for too long have had too little say in determining the shape and future of their profession; it will celebrate the best of teaching, by drawing on the dedication and experience of those who have made teaching their vocation...'*

(Byers, 1997:3).

The GTC will have a very important role in building the professional status of teachers and reinstating a sense of pride in the profession (Valerie, Dennis, Special Needs co-ordination, and member of the GTC)... 'The most important thing for the GTC is to raise the teaching profession's status and morale' (Naila Zaffir, member of GTC for Ethnical Minority Schools, ('Most GTC seats held by teachers', TES, 4384, July 7, 2000:10.).

Since the mission of the GTC will be to 'promote a better image of teaching both within and outside the profession', teachers hope that the council will be with, not against the profession. 'They (the teachers) were never led to believe that they would be losing their employment status and exposed to people like parents and members of the public, who already can complain to an employer. Nigel De Gruchy General Secretary of the National Association of Schoolmasters says that 'there are already 30 systems for holding teachers accountable... and wonders if this is the 31<sup>st</sup>? He adds that

***'Teachers are going to be aghast at this, and they will be asking themselves if they were sold the GTC on a false premise'.***

(De Gruchy, N, TES, 4384, July 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:2).

Similar apprehension seems already evident among teachers due to the statement made by some ministers who declared in the report 'GTC to consider Parental claims' parents (by Warwick Mansell) that: 'Teachers could be struck off the professional register following complaints of incompetence... if the GTC found against the teacher, he/she would be barred from the profession'. The GTC chief executive, clarified that

***'We are not a body of parental complaint...Our role will be to consider cases referred to us by employers after employment law has already been followed to its conclusion'***

(Adams, C. GTC Chief Executive, TES, 4384, July 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:2)

The above seems to confirm that within the GTCs broad and already demanding agenda, new functions are expected to arise as time passes by (e.g., the council was consulted in March 2000 for its views on a number of issues including competency procedures (TES, *ibid.*)). Some others argue that the council's role appears to overlap with the TTA's at some point. Actually, the GTC role is advisory, while the TTA exists to implement policies. The council will be more independent than the TTA, though working with the government. This will target highest professional standards and will raise its voice where standards are not what they should be. In Mr Byers' (Minister for School Standards) own words in the foreword of one of the DfEE magazine, the target is to be

***'...An engine for change and a powerful driving force behind our new deal for teachers: high expectations and pressure to succeed matched by support and recognition for achievement'***

(Byers, S, 1997:3).



The key role of the GTC in respects of the *CPD* of teachers will be to

- 1) advise on teacher training and
- 2) professional development.

The Council will have a legal right to be consulted on any future change in the standards required for entry to teaching. Thus it will be vital in shaping the education service of the future, based on the teachers' experience. It will have the chance to lead and shape change, working in partnership with the government, LEAs, schools and others (GTC: a brief guide for teachers, 1999). Mr Byers' wish is that the Council plays a full and active part in the national drive to raise standards in schools. This is a potentially exciting new development for the teaching profession that he expects to succeed (Teaching: High Status, High Standards: The Composition of the General Teaching Council, A Consultation Document, 1998:3). Issues to do with professional membership and its representativeness may yet prove decisive.

### **Size, Structure and funding**

As in other professions (i.e. medicine), the Board or Council may vary in size. Initial suggestions were for 50 to 60 members (ideally 55 like in Scotland). In the last document issued by the DfEE 'The GTC: a brief guide for teachers, 1999, the final figure established was 64 members. This figure would include a Chair, a Chief Officer and 62 more members of different interests distributed as follows: 25 elected teachers; 9 teachers appointed by the main teaching unions; 17 appointments by various representatives, mostly from within the education system, and 13 Secretary of State appointees. Warwick, M and Dean, C report that of its 64 members 42 will have working experience in schools, though only 8 of Mr Blunket's nominees are teaching professionals (TES, 4384:10, July 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000). This good news was a surprise for Unions. Since the Council (as an independent self-regulating professional body) intends to bring together and reflect the interests of all involved in education, parents, employers, HE and the wider public, as well as teachers will be part of its structure. The strong suggestion made in the Consultation Document of 1997, that teachers will form a majority of the GTC has been and will be respected. Members will meet perhaps 4 times a year, supported by committees, which will meet more regularly to deal with particular areas.

The government will be paying all the setting-up costs for the GTC (GTC: a brief guide or teachers, 1999), 'on a firm footing' (GTC: A Consultation Document: 1998:7). Thereafter it will function with its own budget earned from teachers' individual annual registration fee, a method of funding that guarantees the Council's independence from the government of the day (The GTC: a brief guide for Teachers, 1999). The GTC first met in September 2000 (TES, 4384, July, 7<sup>th</sup>, 2000:10). In this meeting, important things would emerge. An important aspect of 'going live' as

an organisation on September 2000 is the Roadshow's events in different parts of the country (e.g., Birmingham, on 9 October (2000), ...7 October, Greenwich..., 28 November, Manchester,...and 6 December Devon) which establishes the GTC as a 'listening organisation'. The profile of the GTC has been raised as the voice of the profession and has begun to build regional networks for professional debate on policy. 200-250 teachers can attend the local meetings (1 per school) hearing the set out of the overall vision and purposes of the GTC with the Chair (David Puttman), Vice-chair and Chief Executive of the Council present. Nonetheless, the most crucial part is to hear the views of teachers and to develop a local erspective on the code of professional practice which the Council will develop on our proposals for continuing rofessional development (CPD) and on te role and work of the GTC (Webpage <http://www.gtce.org.uk>).

The Council will facilitate membership networks, regional registration events for new cohorts of qualified teachers, consultation and feedback 'surgeries', and support local education networks including parents, community partners and other stakeholders. All teachers from maintained schools (GMS) and non-maintained special schools are required to enrol with the GTC for England by 1 February, 2001 unless they are trainee teachers undertaking teaching practice, overseas trained teachers (instructors) with no proper appointment, or teachers working towards QTS and employment programme. Also, supply and part-time teachers in a teaching post that requires having QTS will be required to enrol (<http://www.gtce.org.uk>). In short, all teachers holding QTS, not having been disqualified from teaching by those with authority to do so (e.g., Secretary of State; the GTC (from July 2001); etc), and who have not failed induction, will be registered automatically by their LEAs after September, 2000. They will pay a registration fee from October 2001 onwards with the advantages attained by being a GTC member.

Although this research is not looking for simple transferability, it seems clear at this point that findings concerning INSET in the UK, especially the three latest developments may well have some bearing in educational policies on other context (e.g. in Colombia) (see 7.7 below).



## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **1. IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING IN COLOMBIA: A BRIEF DISCUSSION OF POLICY AND LATEST DEVELOPMENTS**

### **2. IMPLICATIONS OF THE UK STUDY FOR POLICIES IN COLOMBIA**

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#### **7.0 Preamble**

This chapter is in a way an extension of the UK study upon the In-service training of teachers (INSET), but in a different country, namely Colombia. The chapter first outlines relevant aspects on the socio-political and administrative system in Colombia. Then, running the risk of delaying the main issue of this study (INSET/CPD), a brief historical background of education is given to clarify first the context in which teachers, and particularly INSET, operate as a result of the 4 latest reforms of 1989, 1993, 1994, and 1996. The chapter elaborates from there on policies for INSET/CPD. Incidental comments of Interviewees from a range of administrative and educational institutions in Colombia are introduced throughout the chapter. Combined with relevant literature extracted from books, Internet sites, and to a less extent documents, the quotations from first hand sources give the chapter a more credible character. Finally, to answer the second research question stated in 1.2 above, the chapter draws some implications from the UK study for policies on INSET in Colombia.

#### **7.1 THE REPUBLIC OF COLOMBIA**

##### **7.1.1 Socio Political and administrative organisation**

Colombia is a decentralised democratic and pluralist Republic with autonomy in its territorial entities (Constitucion Politica de Colombia, Articulo 1, 1991). The national government is formed by the President of the Republic, the Ministers of different Affairs, and the Directors of the Administrative Departments. Territorial units are composed of political departments, districts, municipalities and indigenous territories (Constitucion Politica de Colombia, Articulo 286, 1991). Santa Fe de Bogota, the capital of the republic, is organised as a District Capital whereby local authorities administer their own affairs.

Owing to the decentralised system operating in the country, political departments (33 altogether) have autonomy in the administration of their local affairs and in the planning and promotion of economical and social development within their territory. The Governor is the Chief of the sectional administration and 'legal agent' of the President in all that concerns maintenance of the public order, performance of general economic policy, as well as education in each political department. The Municipality is, however, the fundamental unit of the political-administrative

division of the State. It is at the service of the public and is in charge of local progress. It orders the development of its territory; promotes co-operative participation and propitiates cultural and social improvement for its inhabitants. The Mayor (Alcalde) is the chief in the local administration and the legal Representative before the National and/or Departmental Entities (OEI – Sistemas Educativos Nacionales, 1996: 3). Spanish/Castilian is the official language for education.

On the other hand, the Indigenous' territories administration is performed according to the protocol of the communities, by the Indigenous Councils (Consejos Indigenas) and the Governors of the Departments. The languages and dialects of the ethnical groups are official within their territories and the teaching imparted in those communities with linguistic traditions is/will be bilingual (Articulo 10 de la Constitucion Politica de Colombia, OEI - Sistemas Educativos Nacionales, 1996: 4, Ch. 1).

## **7.2 EDUCATION IN COLOMBIA**

### **7.2.1 Brief Historical Background**

The first institutions of education in Colombia were founded from 1500 onwards by the Spaniards. Ever since, education has been highly influenced by international systems, especially by the French, American, English, and German ones.

During the XVI and XVII century education progressed thanks to the hard work of the Jesuits and Franciscans, but problems would be inevitable, above all a lack of specialised people to teach. The UK's Lancasterian system was adopted in the XVIII century to stop its decline, instruction being imparted by the most clever and advanced students. Also, at the end of the XIX century a Pedagogic Mission arrived in Colombia from Germany, to advise the National Direction of Public Instruction. The German Normal Schools (Escuelas Normales) were replicated as pedagogical institutions for the formation of Primary Teachers (still exist) (OEI – Sistemas Educativos Nacionales – Colombia, 1996: 2), and the first curriculum was created at that time. These two important developments gave great impulse to education but, markedly, to the private sector.

It would be fair to say then that much progress has occurred in education throughout the 4 centuries since the Spanish Conquest, especially during the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

By 1950, the main institutions that would administer education in future were created, e.g. the Ministry of National Education Office (MOE/MEN) and the Colombian Institute for Educational



Scholarship and Loans to Study Abroad (ICETEX). Among other things, the income for education was substantially increased, the minimal education for teachers to attend was dictated, and the academic/classic Bachillerato (like the French Bacalaureat) of general formation and of professional practices was established.

Despite new developments, Colombia seemed to have entered the second half of the century with a disadvantaged educational system, one far from being ideal (Serrano, J et al., 1994:15-16) due, in part, to the lack of (suitable) institutions in charge of its administration. It was evident at the time that if some action was not taken fast, the country would need something more than two centuries to reach similar position in education to, for example, that of the United States or France. Consequently, during the rest of the 1950s and 1960s, the State dedicated a great deal of effort and money to broadening the coverage of primary and higher education. In both cases, however, the interest was more in quantity rather than in quality (Azüero, G. et al., 1994:15, In Serrano, J. *ibid.*). Also, great efforts were made to empower the Educational Planning System. This has been enhanced ever since by the different governments and political parties in administration (mostly liberal). The State assumed the role of organiser, administrator and orientator of an education system free of discrimination by income or sex (OEI – Sistemas Educativos Nacionales – Colombia, 1996: 3). Primary education was nationalised, salary categories for teachers were standardised, and HE was diversified by introducing technology formally. All this happened within a succession of traumatic social and political conflicts that degenerated in contradictions, ideological polemics, violence and civil war (that has gone for 40 years now) in Colombia.

Until 1968, the Educational Constitution of the country was ruled by the principle of political centralisation and administrative decentralisation. This system maintained the double competence of the nation and political departments in the creation and administration of primary and secondary education (OEI – Sistemas Educativos Nacionales – Colombia: 1996: 7) with attained gaps and overlaps. Trying to overcome difficulties in the system, campaigns of modernisation were continually carried out by using international advice/consultancy. The French Leberet and Currie Missions would play a significant role in that process, producing the two first systematic diagnoses upon the situation of the teaching sector in Colombia. The result of such diagnoses was the first Quinquennial Plan for Education (QUIPED) (Plan Quinquenal de Educacion) that was run by the Office for Planning and Education of the MEN in 1967. In this way, Colombia became the pioneer in the sub-continent in this kind of advance (OEI – *ibid.* 3). With the QUIPED many achievements were reached. A succession of campaigns were launched



to eradicate illiteracy and a great part of the resources for education were devoted to the construction of schools and *education and training for teachers*.

In the 1970s, the country intended more efficiency and quality in education. Many of the deficiencies in the primary sector had been broadly overcome as 90% of infants had access to primary education. Likewise, problems of establishments and teaching personnel were addressed. Discrimination by sex, very much present in the 50s, were reduced, while variation in males' and females' matriculation became more balanced. That was not the case in secondary education, however.

It appears that while results in primary changes were awaited, the planning reform of secondary education was delayed. Its planning was relegated practically to the decade of the 1980s. Due to the limited participation of the State at secondary level, the private sector had to overtake this role and fulfil this function. The common perception was that secondary education was a path of the individual to the labour market, the preparation of efficient workers being attached to it. Based on supply and demand, the state promoted more enthusiastically the system of diversification in education, creating the Institutes of Middle Education (INEMs) ('OEI – Sistemas Educativos Nacionales – 'Evaluacion Historica del Sistema Educativo' (a chapter (2), Colombia: 1996:4). A problem was that diversification in contents was not much taken into account, therefore, the National Curriculum that had been written initially for CLASSIC EDUCATION was used also in diversified education until 1994.

Education in the 1980s was characterised by a satisfactory coverage level. The purpose was primarily to reach the farthest corners of the country, breaking this way with the marked centralism that had characterised education (OEI – 'Evaluacion Historica del Sistema Educativo' (a chapter (2), *ibid.*). But this purpose has not been easy to achieve as yet.

In 1988, before the four latest reforms (1989, 1993, 1994, 1996), secondary education was much more urban-centred, forcing the migration of families from the country to the cities. Classic education was largely supported while secondary education was questioned for being biased against the very few years of basic schooling. Part of the argument was –until recently- that specialised education for juveniles was decided at a very early age, that is, at 12. As a result of these difficulties plus the deficient and improvised planning process, recent evaluation by the World Bank concluded that the Technical Bachillerato (bacalaurea), as a vocational career is much more expensive than the classic one, and that it does not properly prepare pupils for the labour market. Thus, it is possible to affirm that the 1970s through to the 1980s were characterised by a lack of clarity in the definition that the state and society made of secondary



education, its function and role expectations. This faced more problems than the primary sector, the needs of which had been widely attended during the prior three decades.

Nevertheless, it seems fair to say that efforts made by the Colombian government in educational matters during the last 40 years have been enormous. Major developments have been the educational planning, which, despite inherent disadvantages, enjoys a healthy historical background and above all a very able staff (OEI – Sistemas Educativos Nacionales – Colombia: 1996: 8).

### 7.2.2 Last Decade: Latest Reforms in Education

In the decade of the 1990s, and beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, differences between urban and rural coverage in education are still there (19 to 20% in favour of cities), while the internal efficiency of the educational system is still being questioned. Future challenges would be to achieve major success by increasing the efficiency of the secondary and middle sector, and to combat the low level of schooling

Most notorious problems to date are the acute imbalance in provision of opportunities and funding for education and training of teachers among regions, and especially, in rural zones (OEI – Sistemas Educativos Nacionales – Colombia: 1996:9). Perhaps as an effect of the civil war, primary and secondary sectors are dramatically concentrated in a few cities, while rural zones of the country remain almost forgotten. In spite of this, Colombian education is regarded abroad as better than that of countries such as Venezuela, Peru, Panama, etc. This view, perhaps, originates from the developments achieved by the 4 latest reforms during the last 40 years and especially during the decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and beyond, with the community and teachers at the forefront. Teachers and Unions have been struggling since long ago to improve the quality in education, to enhance their welfare and professional status. They have been the driving-force behind the 4 latest reforms in education and the achievements attached to them (see Fig.18 below).

#### LATEST REFORMS IN EDUCATION IN COLOMBIA

REFORMS	ACHIEVEMENTS
1) Law 29 of 1989	Decentralisation of education
2) Law 60 of 1993	School autonomy
3) Law 115 of 1994	General Law in Education, Institutional Educational Plans (INEPs)
4) Law 11 of 1996	Decennial Plan in Education, 1996-2005

Fig. 18. Compiled from various sources

**Law 29 of 1989:** As Figure 18 shows, this development decentralised the Education system towards the Municipalities. City Mayors perform the administration of the physical resources in schools (construction, maintenance, etc.), as well as of the administrative and teaching personnel in the sector.

**Law 60 of 1993:** School Autonomy is guaranteed by this law. This achievement is seen as one of the most important in education in C/bia, because it is the community who is now to administer education, as is established by the National Constitution of 1991 (Celis, J.A., et al., 1996:45), not the state. As part of School Autonomy schools are in charge, as independent entities, of the setting up of own curriculum, one adjusted to local and regional needs of the pupils. Their particular curriculum has to be, however, based on the National Curriculum (obsolete for many) and has to be written in accordance with the National Constitution and the Reforms in Education. As a result, curriculum is considered as a fundamental instrument for carrying out teaching management.

Teachers are called on to defend that autonomy, and above all to perform it. To do that, they have to develop and put into practice their creativity, leadership, as well as professional knowledge. They, together with parents, pupils and members of society, allow meaningful advances in education to happen departing from a scientific, technical and humanistic orientation. Contests of the curriculum/a, is/are no longer only decided/written by the Ministry of Education. Since the curriculum is not state-operated (like in the UK), this role is performed by the educators themselves, based on Law 115 of 1994, and the Institutional Educational Projects (INEPs). The transformation of the educational system from the very base, the abolition of traditional teaching methods, as well as curriculum matter would be left in the teachers' hands, e.g. contents and reforms.

***'Teachers are called on to defend liberty of teaching and not to allow strangers to usurp their professional role as active members of the community in the development and reform of the curriculum'***

(Celis, A. J., et al., 1996: 45).

At national level, the MOE is engaged in determining and reflecting on the foundations of Curriculum Reform (CR). CR is undertaken by them as a key strategy in the improvement of all levels of formal education, that is: at kindergarten, basic, vocational and middle education (Burgos, C. E, 1976: 10). Nonetheless, reforms and appropriations are finally made by schools themselves and teachers. School curricula are to include a plan of studies, plus objectives and indicators of achievement. In this direction, the former Minister of Education (Maria Emma Mejia,



1996) who was a key person in the latest 4 reforms advocated for a quality education (which indicators are difficult to prescribe), one for life. She attacked the traditional education system where memorising and rehearsing contents with no practical ends were the main characteristics. As she wrote in the forward of one of her books

*'Today, the complexity of the social relationships, transformed by the greatest technological and scientific developments, demand an education in life and for life'*

(Mejia, 1996:6, MOE, Santafe de Bogota).

Remaining questions are, however:

- 1) **How much training the teachers get for curriculum matters, and**
- 2) **Whether or not teachers are sufficiently trained to mark pupils according to the indicators of achievement pointed out by the MOE and SOEs.**

**General Law for Education (GLE) (1994)** (Ley General de la Educacion) (see fig. 18 above). In April 1994, in a public document of the 'Third Millenium Corporation', it was predicted that with the expedition of the Law 115, 1994, education would acquire new dimensions and bright perspectives. Propositions were, among others, to:

- 1) Formulate a Statutory Law to regulate the fundamental right to education
- 2) Give continuity and consolidate the Movement for the Reform in Education and Teaching (Reforma de la Educacion y la Ensenanza) initiated with the Pedagogic Movement (PM) (Movimiento Pedagogico). The PM aims at the foundation of institutions of education; the adoption of the Institutional Educational Projects (INEPs), and discussion of the plans and reforms of study and teaching systems (Ley General de la Educacion: Decretos Reglamentarios, 1996:7).
- 3) Generate a process of 'reform of the current systems of training and up-dating of teachers' by increasing links with the faculties of Education of the diverse Universities and Escuelas Normales. The purpose is to achieve the idea of self-education, investigation and innovation in education. Within this framework, educational research is put at the forefront in the planning of national investigation and in the University systems.
- 4) Find institutional mechanisms for the adoption of the 'Decennial Plan in Education (1996-2005).
- 5) Establish the 'professional salary' and financial guaranties from the nation to improve the teachers' professional status, along with the cultural and financial conditions of the teaching force, as it was formerly done with the lawyers, military, etc.
- 6) National and social compromise between the civil society, the teaching force, and the institutions is also intended. Efforts to transform education and put it at the service of democracy, social justice, peace, cultural affirmation, and the construction of a future for the Colombian citizens is more obvious than before

(Ley General de la Educacion: Decretos Reglamentarios, 1996:8).

Many of these proposals have been made effective since their initial formulation in 1994, several aspects have been carried out; some are in their infancy, while others are still awaiting to be implemented.

**Law 11 of 1996:** As Fig. 18 shows, this law major achievement was The Decennial Plan for Education (DEPE) (Plan Decenal de Educacion) 1996-2005. DEPE is considered the most ambitious plan ever undertaken in education in Colombia.

The Constitution of 1991 established as a fundamental principle of the political and social organisation of the country (<http://www.icfes.gov.co/mineducacion/pla12-0.html>) the participating democracy. Accordingly, the MOE prepares, in co-ordination with the territorial entities the National Plan of Educational Development at least every 10 years. This includes all corresponding actions to achieve the constitutional and legal requirements over the provision of the educational service.

As seen, the last decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century was characterised by a significant number of developments, reforms and achievements in education in Colombia. These, however, do not necessarily assure a top quality education.

### 7.2.3 Forthcoming developments

Forthcoming developments in education in Colombia constitute a legal and institutional framework, sufficient to undertake a profound reform in the teaching and learning processes. The immediate task is to make the establishments of basic and integrated education proposed by Law 115 of 1994 function throughout the country.

It is necessary to re-found the institution of the school empowering it to overcome the existing fragmentation between primary and secondary levels. It is necessary to advance towards the constitution of a **General School** (Escuela General), one which integrates kindergarten up to secondary education into a 'unique educational institution' (Ley General de la Educacion: Decretos Reglamentarios, 1996:9).

But to do so, the infrastructure of the system has to be enhanced/changed, and more teachers have to be contracted. Above all, the teaching force has to be empowered, trained and up-dated. In this task, Higher Education has a significant if not central role to play (see 7.3 below).



### 7.3 EDUCATION OF TEACHERS IN COLOMBIA

HEIs are the entities in charge of the education of teachers in Colombia. Some 40 years ago, HE as an institution was criticised for its lack of quality and disparity with the national reality and needs of the country. It was described as being a copy of European models with no changes or adaptations being made. Lebret, one of the international commentators of education wrote years ago

*‘Living at the margin of national activities, badly equipped for investigation, with no links with the organisms running the country, the university fatally finds itself disconnected from the real needs of the country. In fact, neither the content of its teaching nor the spirit by which it is animated, or the structure of its faculties, correspond to the phase of Colombian development’*

(Lebret, 1957).

The most difficult problem HE has faced during the following 2 decades (1970s & 80s) was the appearance of a large number of technological faculties and private universities. In only 10 years (1975-1985) Colombia became one of the countries in the world with the most increased number of establishments for Higher Education (52 in 1975; 156 in 1985). As a result of this proliferation, there was an excessive amount of professionals in some areas, while a lack in others was evident. This picture has changed lately, to the point that they are currently responsible for the education, up-dating and training of teachers.

### 7.4 TEACHER TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

Within the process of decentralisation of education, the Ministry of Education (MOE) has, among others, the functions of: 1) planning and policy making; 2) inspection and vigilance; 3) administration; and 4) the normative functions of the public service of education.

In 1988, by decree 1419, as part of the National Programme of Qualitative Improvement in Education, the MOE was re-structured into 3 main sections: 1) the General Direction of Administrative Services, 2) the General Direction of Administration and Educational Inspection, and 3) the General Direction of Teacher Training, Curriculum and Educational Means (Burgos, C.E., et al., 1996:11). It is this last section which is in charge of the education and training of teachers while in-service.

### **7.4.1. General Direction of Teacher Training, Curriculum and Educational Means**

This section of the MOE is mainly in charge of, teacher training matters. This direction centrally:

- 1) elaborates the 'unique national register of teachers' performance. It makes possible all that concerns the teachers' up grading and the teaching statutes according to Law 115, 1994;
- 2) co-ordinates all educational actions of the state and of those who work within the public service of education in the national territory (General Law of Education, Article 148: 57, 1994);
- 3) fixes the technical criteria for the selection of courses, enrolment, promotion and transfers of administrative and teaching personnel in the different political departments and districts (Law 115, Article 148, In Ley General de la Educacion and Decretos Reglamentarios, 1994-1996:57); and
- 4) establishes the criteria for the education, up dating, and training of both administrative, and teaching staff

(Ley General de la Educacion, Article 114, 1994 : 57).

The Ley General de la Education in Article 109 of 1994 dictates that the training of educators in Colombia has the following ends:

- 1) to form an educator of the highest scientific and ethical quality
- 2) to develop the theory and pedagogic practice as essential parts of the educator knowledge craft
- 3) to enforce investigation in the pedagogic field and knowledge, and
- 4) to prepare teachers at under and post-graduate level for the different levels and forms of education.

(Ley General de la Educacion: Decretos Reglamentarios, 1996:44).

Nevertheless, the process of administrative decentralisation gives political departments autonomy in the training of teachers, following some parameters established by central government. Regionally, an annual plan of 'training for teachers', is approved by the Governors and Secretary of Education Officers. SOEs work with the Regional Juntas (REJUs), and Regional Committees (RECOs) in this respect, but they cannot work independently from the MOE. For an overview of the current chain of command for INSET in Colombia, see App. E1.

### **7.4.2 Regional Committees (RECOs) for Teacher Training**

Formerly, teacher training was organised and administered -like in Spain- by the Centro Experimental Piloto (CEP). 33 CEPs were created in the country by decree 088 of 1976 as



government entities. They were in charge of the teachers' profiles and career development. They offered In-service training and awarded credits for promotion (Interviewee/S10). CEPs were great regional centres, and

*'Due to the autonomy they had, they were practically self-financed. Sometimes they could generate their own budget by selling training services to other institutions. Their mission was to look permanently for methodology experiments and new educational proposals made by teachers who were interested in their own development'.*

(S 10, Meta.CO, Former CEP Director in Meta) (see Map App. E3).

Two major problems pointed out by critics of the CEPs were the focus of INSET, and the award of credits. It seemed that CEPs too often gave their services for free, and awarded credits in addition. Thus it was in the need to re-state its aims towards new strategies and policies of the nation. The chance was taken by some circles within the MOE in Bogota. They intended to break the system and divert the training resources in other directions (S10, Meta.CO) with some success.

Claims were made that credits for INSET were not a good idea because there was not enough control of outcomes. Nor was there a legislation to control or improve the performance of the teachers after the training finished. To this, S10 asserted in the interview that some of the CEPs tried to control outcomes, but that Teacher Unions objected to it. As a result of these deficiencies, the CEPs subsumed as part of the Secretary of Education Offices (SOEs) in 1988, and were closed down in 1994 for good.

Following the CEP's dismantling, the Regional Committees of Teacher Training (RECOs) (Comites Regionales de Capacitacion de Docentes) were created in each political department or district in the country. RECOs are currently under the direction and administration of the corresponding Secretary of Education Officer (see App. E1). The RECOs have a huge number of staff made of: representatives from Universities, Faculties of Education, Staff from former CEPs, from Escuelas Normales, and Training Centres, as subject specific trainers. They work together with the Regional Juntas for Education.

### **7.4.3 Regional Juntas (REJUs)**

The Junta of Education is at departmental level the highest authority for teacher training. A relevant document from one of the regions investigated in Colombia mentions that

***'It is the duty of the Junta to look after the professional improvement of teachers, and to be able to offer a quality service in the different levels of formal, less formal and no formal education'***

(Gobernacion, Secretaria de Educacion de Boyaca : Acuerdo No 009 de Noviembre 30, 1998).

Each REJU consists of:

- 1) a delegate of the National Ministry of Education (MOE)
- 2) a general director of the MOE, designated by the Minister
- 3) a director of the Central Juridical Office of the MOE
- 4) 2 teacher representatives, designated by and representing most of the Teaching Unions

(Ley General de la Educacion: Decretos Reglamentarios, 1996:49)

.). The REJus' functions are, among others to:

- 1) register all teachers and directors wishing to enrol in the profession, according to the National Register of Teachers (as it will do soon the General Council of Education in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland;
- 2) conduct, keep and up-date the documents referent to the teachers' professional career and promotion;
- 3) advise the SOEs, the Teaching Boards and the teachers in what relates to the teaching career;
- 4) carry out disciplinary procedures
- 5) make sure that all norms are accomplished concerning appointments and transfers of teachers.

(Ley General de Educacion, Artículo 121, 1996:48).

The Junta ensures the right conditions for the execution of programmes of Continuing Professional Development or In-service training that are valid for the up grading and promotion of teachers. They make use of actions, resources, efforts and knowledge to enable the teachers to participate in education. The Juntas and RECOs make sure that proposals and bids from providers involve rural, provincial and urban areas of the country (Ley 115, Article 158,1994, in Agreement with Article 23 of Decree 0709 of 1996: Document No 009, 30 November, 1998). At regional level, the Junta must guarantee proposals/bids from Universities and Escuelas Normales for the education of primary and In-service training of secondary teachers.

## **7.5 IN SERVICE TRAINING (INSET) OF SECONDARY TEACHERS**

The level of education of the teaching force has dramatically improved in Colombia especially during the two last decades. In 1988, for example, only 4% of the teaching force did not hold University graduate status. Simultaneously, the participation of educators in higher and post-graduate studies while in-service greatly increased.



The In-service training of teachers (INSET) is technically called permanent training/development of in-service teachers in Colombia (CPD in UK). Professional training is offered by HEI and other Institutions of Higher Education (Ley General de la Educacion, Article 13, Decree 0709, 1996). This operates through the organisation of decentralised plans of training which include provincial and local networks of training with inter-institutional participation of HEIs, and other institutions (Ley General de la Educacion, *ibid*). The Regional Committees (RECOs) oversee all this.

INSET aims at the professionalisation, up-dating, specialisation and perfecting up to the highest levels of teachers' education (e.g. post-graduate studies). Training degrees and programmes run within the law framework are valid/compulsory requirements for the incorporation and promotion of teachers in the career.

The In-service training of *secondary teachers* is a joint effort between two main forces: 1) the SOES, and 2) the HEIs. In-service training has been labelled as formal, and less formal. Like in the UK, a third type imparted by private training institutions, and subject associations may be termed 'opportunistic' though this word is not considered in the literature. For present purposes, however, this will be treated as a further aspect of less formal training.

The SOEs play, like the LEAs in the UK, a supervision/inspectorial and supportive role, along with the up-dating of teachers' knowledge with the delivery/provision of a less/non-formal INSET. Funding restrictions, a lack of proper infra-structure within the organisation, as well as a lack of clear formulation of ends seem to be affecting their mission. As a Secretary of Education Chief pointed out in the interview (as translated)

***'We have not encountered the spaces, resources and mechanisms to achieve the up dating of teachers. Many teachers undertake 'any' post-graduate study to get a degree that let them go up in the teaching ladder, rather than to facilitate the development of the pupils or satisfy the needs of the regions'***

(S7. Meta.CO; Secretary of Education Chief in Meta)

This statement underlies the deficiencies in the system and the lack of clear policies underpinning CPD. The INSET/CPD courses are usually delivered, according to a government policy, during the weekends, holidays or during the opposite working journey/time (as many schools operate on the hot chair system) (S8, Meta.CO).

Higher Education, on the other hand, is in charge of the delivery of formal INSET and the CPD of teachers. They have greatly increased their links with Secretaries of Education Offices (SOEs), with the main aims of:



- 1) contributing to the qualitative improvement of the basic and middle education standards through the CPD of teachers.
- 2) accompanying, following-up and controlling the development and results of programmes of in-service training and up dating of teachers

(Gobernacion de Boyaca, Secretaria de Educacion, ' Annual Plan of Education of Teachers': Article 2, Agreement No 009 of 30 November, 1998,).

HEIs offer programmes in a modular form as formal and less formal training. Above all, they offer professional programmes leading to awards. They bid for the allocation of training funds and are very much the favourites among teachers. They advise on scientific and technical aspects and present proposals of educational policies and programmes to the Ministry of Education (MOE) (Ley General de la Educacion, Article 114, 1994: 32). But they do not seem to have freedom to perform their training job because HEIs, Universities, Centres of Investigation and any other institutions that have to do with the training of educators, have to co-operate with the SOEs or with their equivalent organisations (S1). This opinion could not be cross checked with, for example, university trainers', given that staff were on holiday during the sample time.

On the other hand, programmes for less formal training are, at least on paper, offered in a structured, continuous and organised manner (LGE, Capitulo IV, Decree 0709, 1996, 1997:3). They start by the identification of geographical and human needs, and have a theoretical component. As mentioned in one of the documents examined, they are to respond efficiently to the educational, scientific, technologic and cultural development of every municipality (Secretary of Education Office in Boyaca, Article 3, Strategies, 1997: 3). At the end of each year a plan is elaborated for training. This plan involves, like in the UK, courses mostly on Language and Mathematics as part of the literacy and numeracy strategies (S8 Meta.CO). When projects are approved, universities look for the place to deliver the courses. It may be in site or outside the campus. Universities enjoy autonomy in these and other regards (S8, Meta.CO).

In theory, programmes are financed locally, e.g., by local budget and/or by the Regional Committees' own resources (Law 60 of 1993). RECOs are in charge of the organisation of training and up-dating the programmes of basic and middle education teachers. They also deal with specialisation and research in diverse areas of knowledge, as well as with the pedagogic and specific teacher training projects. Not everybody seems to share this view, however. Interviewee S9, the Director/Rector of one of the Institutes of Middle Education (INEMs) (see Map, App.E3) suggested that 'SOEs through RECOs care more for the normative part of the training than for its pedagogic reflection component' (S9, Meta.CO). Some institutions (INEMs, among others) have had to take over partly the training of both teachers and administrative staff. They adjust it to their own needs, and pay for the service from their own teaching funds. This is in line with the



paradox compulsory training / restricted funding for training in the country. As one of the Interviewees pointed out

***'Funds devoted to training programmes are used 'only for very special situations'***

(S8), Meta.CO (Director of the Language Resource Centre in Meta)).

All training programmes (formal/less formal/opportunistic) must be approved, prior to their implementation, by the National Council for Higher Education (NACOSE) (Consejo Nacional de Educacion Superior), or by the Minister of Education (MOE).

As for the focus, theoretically speaking, the content of the INSET focuses on that established by the Article 8 of Decree 0709 of 1996. Content has to be related mainly to the corresponding initial area of training of teachers, or complement it for the pedagogic growing (Ley General de la Educacion, Article 111, 1994: 32). The focus of SOE's training is subject, though mostly school effectiveness/improvement-related. Courses are delivered by the subject adviser usually in the teachers' centres (in urban areas), or in a school or social club when the training is in consortia of schools in province and/or rural areas.

Research is an integral part of the programmes. It uses curricular hypotheses, the idea being that the problems are to be faced and solved in the classroom, though effecting transfer. All this is overseen by the Regional Committees for Teacher Training (RECOs). In practice, however, training seems to be more focused (like in the UK) on the development of Institutions, starting from the Institutional Educational Projects (INEPs) rather than from the needs of teachers. It may vary, however, according to the regions of the country. It may focus on school management and improvement; evaluation; the role of the teachers in secondary education, and information technology. It depends on the needs that the institutions claim to have (S9 from Meta). As it is, it can be fair to say that INSET does not always address the teacher's needs because the policies are not strict enough, or are not fully implemented in practice. The director of one of the Institutes of Middle Education (INEM) mentioned in the interview that

***'There are no policies stated by the Secretary of Education Offices and Ministry of Education concerning INSET in the short, medium and long term, not coherent ones, at least'***

(S9, from Meta, Colombia).

Neither does there seem to exist a clear demarcation between the focus of formal and less formal training. This may contribute to some extent to the overproduction of courses on management, citizenship, and the like, along with a lack of subject-related and pedagogic courses.

As for evaluation and follow up for the courses, the universities, SOEs and MOE's courses would have the first element (evaluation) in most of the cases. However, follow up seems to be a privilege of University courses only. The latter was corroborated by one of the interviewees from Santander (S1). As she claimed in the interview

*'the University's INSET involve a follow-up stage where the trainer comes to the teacher's classroom, observe the development, methods, materials employed in the lessons, and/or whatever the training is about. A feed back is given to the trainees in posterior sessions...'*

(S1 from Santander, Colombia).

This formal follow up is an integral part of the course from the planning stage does not seem to be a general practice, however.

## 7.6 CURRENT TEACHERS' CONDITIONS AND DEPLOYMENT

According to Article 104 of the Law 115,

*'The educator is the orientator of the process of formation, teaching and learning of the pupils, in accordance with the social, cultural, ethical and moral expectations of the family and society'.*

(Ley General de la Educacion, 1994)

The same article maintains that as a fundamental right, the teacher:

- 1) will get education and continuing professional development;
- 2) he/she will not be discriminated against for reason of philosophical, political or religious belief. Among duties, the teachers
- 3) will carry out the Institutional Educational Project (INEP); and
- 4) will improve permanently the educational process through ideas and suggestions to the Directive Council (Consejo Directivo), Academic Council (Consejo Academico) and Regional Educational Juntas (REJUs) (Juntas Educativas Regionales)

(Ley General de la Educacion: Decretos Reglamentarios, 1996:42, 43).

### 7.6.1 Appointments

Teachers are appointed by the Secretaries of Education in each political department. This role was formerly performed centrally by the MOE. The constitution reads that only can be appointed as academic or administrative workers in education those who 1) held graduate status, and 2)



take and pass an enrolment exam. In practice, there are exceptions. Tests for appointments of Newly Qualified Teachers (NQT) are administered by the Institute for Higher Education Development (Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educacion Superior (ICFES) at national and regional levels. Teachers sit the exam in the region where they want to work (Constitution Nacional, Article 105, 1991) and are appointed by the Mayors of the locality. All educators holding an appointment have the character of public servants of the special regime (Paragraph 2, *ibid.*). But not all enjoy the same conditions of appointment. Some are given contracts for a single academic year (Ley 60, Articulo 6, 1993), or are contracted continuously for the following academic years, until they can get a proper appointment. Others may be part-time, contingent, casual, or simply hourly paid teachers. It depends.

To work in secondary and middle education, candidates have to hold –like in Spain- the ‘Licensed in Education University degree (Licenciado en Educacion). Different from Spain or England, nonetheless, this degree is only achieved after 4 and a half years (3 and a half years of academic study plus one year of practice). This degree is therefore the equivalent to both, the B Ed or BA, plus the PGCE degree in England, and is awarded by a University or any other HEI in the country or abroad. There also exist the Technologists in Education, who graduate from Pedagogic Institutions other than universities (Constitucion Nacional, Article 116, Decreto 2277, 1979).

### **7.6.2 Registration/Enrolment**

NQTs have to register/enrol in the profession (Escalafon Docente) with the Office for Enrolment, Registration and Promotion (OFEREP) within two years after appointment. Non graduates will be also allowed to teach, but sometimes are appointed in high-risk (red) zones ((zonas rojas) where guerrillas are in operation, or in zones of difficult access (zonas especiales). They are given some additional time to enrol in the teaching profession (Escalafon docente), provided they study pedagogy with the Open University (Universidad a Distancia), or undertake part-time degrees in Pedagogic Universities. Other professionals (e.g. engineers, psychologists, etc) can also enrol in the profession when they carry out studies for no less than a year in a Pedagogical University.

There exists a national office (OFEREP) (Oficinas de Escalafon Docente) with regional branches all over the country and it has a similar role (see 6.4.3) to the GTC in Scotland, England, and soon in Wales and Northern Ireland. According to Capitulo 4, Articulo 120 of the Ley General de la Educacion, OFEREPs are run by Regional Educational Juntas (REJUs) which function in the 33 political departments.

Administratively speaking, OFEREP forms part at regional level of the structure of the Secretaries of Education Offices (SOEs) (Ley 160 de 1993). The Delegate (Chair) of the Regional Junta is designated by the Minister himself at regional and district levels, and acts as the Executive Secretary of the Junta (Articulo 122, *ibid*).

Application for enrolment (and) promotion in the teaching profession is resolved within a maximum time of two months. After this lapse, the employees will be enrolled (or promoted), and accordingly, financially remunerated (Ley General de Educacion, Articulo 122, 1996:48). Also, disciplinary procedures are carried out/sanctioned by the Juntas within 30 days.

7.6.3 Promotion

The OFEREP (Oficina de Escalafon), through the REJu is also in charge of giving teachers meaningful stimuli during their professional lives, e.g. promotion. According to the GLE (Ley General de la Educacion, Article 16, Decree 0709, 1996) teachers' promotion is as follows: with university graduate status, teachers are initially enrolled in the 7<sup>th</sup> category (see Fig. 19 below). Progressively, that is every, 3, 4 and/or 2 years, they can move upwards in the ladder, when they comply with the credits required by law (see Fig. 19 below) until the 14<sup>th</sup> grade which is the maximum a teacher can get.

SECONDARY TEACHER’S PROMOTION IN COLOMBIA

Category	Academic Requirement	Years required	Credits (45hs/each)	Total hours
7	Univ. degree	0	8	360
8		3	0	-
9		3	5	225
10		3	0	-
11		3	6	270
12		4	0	-
13		2	7	315
14	Masters/M Phil, PhD or writing a book.	2		
Total		20 years	26 credits ( x 45 hs each)	1,170 compulsory hrs training + time of post-grad course.

Fig. 19 Compiled from various sources.

The top grade (14<sup>th</sup>) (soon 18<sup>th</sup>) may be reached after 20 years of service (less with post-graduate studies) plus, either, writing a book or reading for post-graduate studies (e.g. Masters, M Phil or a PhD qualification). At that point, teachers have two options: one, to continue working until completion of 25 years of service or more when they are able to legally retire (age 55 (women) or 60 (men)) when they re entitled to a pension. The second option is to take early retirement on completion of 20 years of service. Interestingly, some reach that point at an early age (42-45),



negotiate retirement with the government with a small settlement, and start a new life as salaries are not good enough, and the teaching career turns depressing sometimes.

#### **7.6.4 Other Stimuli**

One important stimulus for teachers seems to be, despite the difficulty of getting it, the sabbatical year. Article 133, Chapter VI of the Ley General de la Educacion, 1994, maintains that the 20 best yearly evaluated professionals of education (for years and levels), who have served 10 years, will be awarded a sabbatical year by the state. This is possible 'only once' in the professional live of teachers. During that year, teachers may go abroad, undertake post-graduate studies, or concentrate on writing and researching with the financial support of the state. This idea is being considered to be implemented in England as well (TES No 4340, September 3, 1999: 1,14).

Special incentives for promotion are also given to those teachers working in high risk zones or zones of difficult access. They are awarded a special bonus as to shorten/reduce the in-service time for promotion to the mid-point in the career scale (Ley General de la Educacion, Article 134, 1994).

Also, through ICETEX, the state financially supports the professionalisation and further training of teachers who work in public (not in private) schools. ICETEX gives opportunities for cultural exchanges, and/or educational loans for some subject teachers to specialise abroad with long study leave if necessary (Ley General de Educacion, Articulo 135, 1996: 51), especially in MFLs. Degrees obtained abroad and time of exchange may count as in-service time for professional promotion, and pension. This requires, of course, presentation of relevant awards to the OFEREP (Office of Enrolment and Promotion) and validation of degrees with ICFES (Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educacion Secundaria).

Interviewee 11 (S 11) from Colombia, for example, has been one of the beneficiaries of MFL's exchange and training in Quebec and the United States, and so was the present writer. S11 contradicted some of the statements above as she mentioned in the interview that 'there are several opportunities to go abroad but there are no promotion or financial gains out of it' (S11). For her, professionally speaking, the US training was a key factor in enabling her to work with HEIs, it brought a change in her status within the profession, though not much at financial or promotion levels. This was disappointing for her, because, as she puts it, 'all intellectual effort ought to have a financial remuneration' (S11).

## 7.7 IMPLICATIONS OF THE UK STUDY FOR POLICIES IN COLOMBIA

There have been certain advantages identified in the UK central government's initiatives to raise status and standards in the teaching profession and pupils' education, e.g. the setting up of agencies such as the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), the General Teaching Council for Education (GTC), and prompt of the National College for School Leadership (NCfSL). This may well imply that within the globalisation trend's influence worldwide, similar kinds of educational developments may have similar advantages in contexts like Colombia. This is despite the fact that the two countries in question operate with two opposite administrative systems, namely: centralisation and decentralisation. Section 7.7 will attempt to identify successful UK developments, which may have potential applications in the Colombian context, provided certain structural and cultural changes occur before or throughout their implementation.

To start with, it has to be recognised that reform is never an easy task, above all when traditional/conservative systems (like the Colombian one), trying to 'retain the status quo', may be resistant to change, or may not always be conducive to the achievement of excellence (Jeffries, 1996:114). Therefore, staff at all level *has to be targeted* before change is attempted, and involved throughout the process. Changes in people's attitudes to work, their perceptions of management, their values, motivation and behaviour have to occur slowly. Techniques such as a brief questionnaire upon *What should we all do less of? What should we all do more of? What should we continue to do the same?* in the institution or target organisation before change occurs (Jeffries, 1996) may be used to involve staff in changing behaviour and attitudes towards reforms. That is a job that trainers and facilitators of INSET should do (nationally, regionally/locally) as a starting point in Colombia. Also, to avoid the problem of considering particular innovations one by one, as may be detrimental, disturbing and non-cost effective, Fullan's (19993:3) advice to take comprehensive reforms simultaneously, is taken into account in this study.

Suggestions made here will be tentative but expressed as requiring at least two stages of implementation (see Ap. E3). In the first stage, structural developments would be the main focus, with particular relevance to national and regional level of activity (e.g. Teacher Training Agency, and a Colombian GTC) (see 7.7.1 & 7.7.2 below). The second stage would concern itself more the local level, with schools, and individual classrooms (e.g. SBI and Action Research (AR) (see 7.7.3 below).

Justification for such an approach is claimed on the basis of a blend of, INSET/CPD modes and levels (namely, top-down (T), bottom-up (B) and interactional (I)) as these were identified in the theoretical discussion at 3.4 above (see also Ap. E3). Implications are as follows:



### 7.7.1 A possible Teacher Training Agency in Colombia

At *national level* (stage 1), a possible initiative might be the setting up of an independent Teacher Training Agency (TTA). The Colombian agency would be a replacement for the Centro Experimental Piloto (CEP), educational organisation in charge of INSET that was dismantled in 1994. The agency main functions, would be to:

- 1) enrol/register teachers in the profession;
- 2) administer the In-service training of Teachers (INSET/CPD);
- 3) keep the records of the teachers' professional progression throughout the years of service;
- 4) administer and oversee professional qualifications for managers of education/schools (e.g., NPQ, NPQH, HEADLAMP);
- 5) be a quality controller of formal/less formal INSET (e.g. HEI's, Subject Association's, etc.).
- 6) supervise the new typology of INSET proposed for schools, namely, SBI (see 7.7.3 below).

#### **Advantages:**

The TTA, could supervise/oversee taught and research programmes that university currently offers at diploma (diplomado) and Masters' levels. This agency would also check the quality of less formal training, which seems to be characterised by serving government rather than actual teachers' needs. The current training delivers general packages, not always planned according to the initial training of teachers. Since it is randomly planned, it tackles irrelevant foci sometimes.

Perhaps the main advantage of setting up a TTA in Colombia would lie in the standardisation of professional qualifications to raise status in the teaching profession. Just as teachers require training to be effective in the classroom, so do heads, principals and senior staff need training to be competent managers (Bush, 1995:vii). Since there is still no requirement for management training for heads in Colombia, and this role is deficient in most of the cases, the agency could provide the entitlement for training for, at least, (new) heads. Also, the agency could set the agenda for programmes for deputy heads or for other senior and middle managers. Qualifications such as the NPQ for subject leaders (NPQSL); Training for Serving Head Teachers (TSHT); and National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) could highly motivate teachers to undertake training and research at higher degrees, as it occurs in the UK. These degrees could easily become a standard feature in the teaching profession perhaps at doctoral level, as all secondary heads and deputies seem to hold already Masters' degrees. This way, the agency would be in close relation with HEIs, SOEs and the MOE.

The TTA could also be responsible for appointments in education (not the governors). Contrary to statements in the Constitution (appointment upon merits), appointments in the teaching profession, above all at managerial level are made, in a commonly held view, by political affiliation rather than talent, professional capacity or accountability of candidates. As a result, important positions in key offices (e.g. Secretary of Education's Chair, Headship, etc.) are sometimes given to professionals others than educators, teachers, or specialists in education (e.g. Engineers, etc.). Administrators of education, then, come and go, as political parties win or loose in local, regional, and national elections.

Most importantly, following the English model, a Colombian TTA could administer financially and administratively the INSET/CPD of teachers. The agency would operate downwards within the INSET ladder with a top-down (T) model that observes bureaucratic features (Weber, 1989), and hierarchical managerial structure, of course, as it is appropriate for educational (Lungu, 1985:173) organisations. At structural level, the implication of the creation of the TTA might be that Regional Committees (RECOs) would be taken away from SOEs and assimilated into its structure. Two remaining questions are:

- 1) Could a Colombian TTA command sufficient authority if it were independent from central government?**
- 2) Could the agency have enough resources to survive crises?**

Different from the English TTA, the Colombian TTA would need to be self-funded so as to survive political and economical crises. Funding could be downloaded/transferred from SOEs for the concept of INSET, from teachers' enrolment in the career, and from the paid courses' budget. A major difficulty would lie in keeping enough funding for sponsorship, supervision (not inspection), and the running of sufficient courses throughout the year.

Perhaps, more and different resources, sponsors, partnership with the private sector, and people in business might be beneficial to a Colombian TTA. The growth and development of educational management...has been accompanied by a careful evaluation of the validity of material drawn from non-educational setting (i.e., industry and commerce), provided prior adaptations (Bush, 1995:10) are made. The principle underlying the application of general management in educational organisations/institutions rests largely upon common managerial functions with industry and commerce, e.g., financial, human resource management and relationships with the organisations' clients and the wider community (Walker, 1984 in Bush, 1995:6). . The agency would borrow from them the experience in cost reduction, improvement of activities, increase of



productivity, reorganisation of central administration, quality data collection, team's performance, and the like. Diverse partnership would diminish the prospect of an INSET's mode described by Owen (1998) as frequently centralised in its operation; an INSET described in terms of the trainers' development as bureaucratic, behaviourist with some hierarchical structure (Bush, 1995) since this would be targeted by those in authority at teachers' classroom. The 'want to', rather than the 'have to' culture (Jeffries, D et al., 1996:15), etc., would be necessary for (measuring) effectiveness, and that characteristic may be emulated from business as well.

But it is sensible to be cautious about overdoing things, as Baldrige warns 'we...must be extremely careful about attempts to manage or improve...education with 'modern management' borrowed from business (Baldrige et al. (1978:9) as it does not always apply to education. Besides, the impulse to reform education from the top may not empathise with a decentralised system like the Colombian. The top-down (T) mode as a traditional pyramidal organisation...consistent with the history of management science created long ago as the beginning of the XX century (Taylor, F, 1911:42) might not operate currently (XXI century) in Colombia.

Perhaps, a new initiative, a less bureaucratic, ***regional initiative*** could be thought of, i.e., the creation of a General Teaching Council (GTC) for Education in Colombia, departing from the restructuring of the Office of Enrolment, Registration and Promotion of Teachers (OFEREP).

### 7.7.2 A Possible General Teaching Council (GTC) in Colombia

A second implication of the UK study (stage 1) might be the re-structuring (Elmore, 1990; Murphy, 1991) of the Regional Office for Enrolment, Registration and Promotion of Teachers (OFEREP) into a formal organisation (e.g., General Teaching Council (see Ap. E2 & E3) with a system model. This would emphasise the unity and integrity of the organisation and would focus on the interaction between its component parts (Bush, 1998:33). Given the decentralisation of the system, regional offices would have an on-site-based management overlapping the top-down (T) regulatory system (Fullan, 1993:2) operating to date. The council would also stress process and objectives (Bush, 1995:13) (rational model). Inevitably, the organisational structure would be shared with the bureaucratic model of education, to assure the highest degree of efficiency...and formality (Weber, 1989:16). As a result, this may be referred to as an ***interactional (I)*** regional initiative (see 3.4), consistent still with stage 1 (see Ap. E3).

OFEREP in Colombia currently has similar functions to those of the GTC in Scotland (see 6.4.3 above), England (and soon in Wales and Northern Ireland). This 1) enrolls Newly Qualified



Teachers (NQT) in the profession, 2) keeps their records of professional progression; 3) promotes teachers; 4) and rewards teachers for success. 5) It also has the faculty to sanction offences against the law, or any mis-conduct against the profession. Following the downward mode announced in 3.4, the concrete implication is that at regional level, INSET should be administered by a structural reformed local office (OFEREP) under the name of GTC (see Ap. E2). Due partly to the bureaucratic structure of the system operation currently, budget cuts, and by effect a lack of juridical and decision-making freedom, RECOs & REJUs face a very uncertain future being part of Secretary of Education Offices (SOEs). These might automatically be transferred from SOEs, and be assimilated and administered by the GTC. Being part of the GTC would give these the possibility of survival, as more funding would probably be allocated for the purpose of INSET. The hypothesis is that in a decentralised educational system such as the Colombian...

**a national GTC with regional branches would be one of the best, -if not the best option- to undertake the additional function of administration and organisation of INSET.**

It would make sense for 'only one' institution to be in charge of all teachers' professional affairs. Using the interactional (I) mode of INSET proposed above, RECOs and REJUs would identify and prepare local key facilitators and encourage them to train teachers in schools by means of inquiry techniques (see also Ap. E3). Whilst, the regional Secretary of Education Offices (like LEAs in UK) with its hierarchical approach would continue their administrative role, e.g., appointments, transfers, finances (see Ap. E2), etc., for the teaching profession, but not any longer of INSET. The current INSET system seems to be imposed and done to the teachers, rather than something owned by them. Thus, the training may be labelled as counterproductive over a long term. In managerial terms this issue may be a policymaking problem (Fullan, 1991:25), however, rather than a practical one, and then may be easily solved.

Detractors might think that initially a new GTC as a government controlling entity would deliver a narrow-view INSET with no more than behavioural prescriptive characteristics. But criticism is always expected and may be taken the positive way. Thus, 'focusing on the difficulties of improving the service rather than on the (possibilities of) successes' (Dalin, 1993) might be more fruitful. And a GTC might serve the purpose of making INSET a desirable product/service for customers/clients to buy/use, by integrating the needs of organisation and clients with the expectations of the teachers. This would be expected from the GTC, nothing more, nothing less. The structural reform of the existing OFEREP into a GTC with regional branches administering the CPD of teachers might well adopt the Scottish model as a starting point. This would be a



good model to replicate in matters of policy and practice, given its experience of more than 40 years. A question remaining concerns possible development at *local level*. It is

**Could the GTC not also take up the supervision of SBI to get over the school's problems of co-ordination of programmes with HEIs, the lack of funding, and out-side speakers?**

### **7.7.3 Institutionalisation of School-based INSET & Action Research**

As a consequence of the decentralisation of education in Colombia, schools have become free to regulate, among other things, their own curricula, expenditure of devolved funds from central government, and much more. Schools have also an agreement with the Regional Committees (RECOs) of teacher training and Regional Juntas (REJUs) (which depend upon Secretary of Education Offices) over the responsibility to supply their staff with certain amount of (less formal) INSET. Yet, schools do not seem to comply seriously with that obligation. A question is

**Would it be sensible to adopt in Colombia a *localised* School-based INSET (SBI) system as that which successfully operates in the UK?**

Despite the fact that SBI presented some difficulties in the UK context, (e.g. some lack of external input, focus), its merit was recognised by the triangulation technique, especially by the survey, that showed that SBI fulfilled teachers', groups' and institutional needs. SBI could possibly be an advantage to the continuing development of teachers in Colombia (stage 2, see Ap.E3). This would be a dramatic and 'change' in the ethos of schools, though inevitably a difficult one at the beginning. But, as it is maintained, change ought to be a normal part of school's work, not just in its latest policy but as a 'way of life' (Fullan, 1993:3). Most importantly, 'if schools are to become the responsive, renewing institutions, the teachers in them must be purposefully engaged in the renewal process' (Goodlad, 1990b: 25). From this viewpoint, re-structuring schools by emphasising on-site management, enhanced roles for principals, teachers and other decentralised components (Elmore, 1990; Murphy, 1991) may seem worth trying.

Schools in Colombia would be re-structured as a platform to serve the CPD of teachers in a kind of bottom-up (B) developmental training system starting from the classroom (see 3.4 & Ap. E3). This development would make a difference (Fullan: 1993:11) in the teachers' professional life, indeed. It would help them contend with and manage the forces of their own professional development on an 'ongoing bases' (Fullan, *ibid.*4). Teachers would be (moral) participants, and agents of their own CPD, taken it as 'the change' taking place in schools. The skills won by the teachers with an on-site CPD would facilitate institutional improvement, and would empower their staff personally, professionally, for the pupils' growth.

## Advantages

Taking advantage of the schools' autonomy in Colombia, and based on the firm belief that SBI is part of the integral development of staff, this might well form part of the annual Institutional Projects (INEPs) of schools. SBI might concentrate on areas wherein other providers (e.g. HEIs, SOEs, RECOs) have often failed e.g. curriculum, subject matter, etc.), through *local identification* of training needs, and *local inquiry* (see 3.4 & Ap. E3) as a lifelong mode of CPD. Through inquiry teachers could express and extend what they value (Fullan, 1993:15), above all if it was undertaken locally. Reflective practice, personal journals, work in innovative mentoring, and peer settings would be some of the strategies available (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991 In Fullan, 1993:15) for continuous learning. Creating an atmosphere of, behaviour change within the school through the adoption of, for example, AR would be a purposeful change (SBI) or innovation. Since post-modern social and economic environments change, so, *lifelong inquiry* is essential to keep abreast these changes and developments. Checks and balances of inquiry are needed because in changing times our initial mental maps 'cease to fit the territory' (Pascale, 1990:3). Thus, mechanisms to question and update our mental maps on a continuous basis are needed. As Lord James would say three decades ago, 'It is only through the growth of in-service training that the gulf between advancing knowledge and practice can be bridged (Lord R. James, 1972), and SBI seems to fulfil this requirement. Nonetheless, this would all function, provided teachers care, not only about themselves, but their pupils also. They ought to put them at the very heart of the training, where care must be linked to a broader ... purpose (Fullan, 1993:15).

## Possible structure and functioning at 'School level'

Adopting the interactional (I), and bottom-up (B) modes of training (Owens, 1998) suggested in 3.4, and following the emerging 6-steps INSET model illustrated in Fig. 15 above, might be viable solutions to the problems faced by CPD in Colombia. These modes would optimise the school's work, and teachers' training in co-ordination with outside trainers (e.g. HEIs, SOEs, RECOs, Subject Associations, Private Consultants, etc.).

*Internally*, there should exist a committee made of *key leaders* in each school, run, perhaps, by deputy heads (Vice-Rectores) to administer the in-house INSET. After being trained by university, RECOs, REJus, and SOEs (see illustration in Ap. E3), these leaders would become facilitators of INSET. The latter, would, as Easen (1985) points out 'give importance to the communication in the identification of needs'.



*Externally*, SBI would be controlled by, the regional *GTC's Office*. This way, the schools would not be administering a top-down (T) model imposed to them within the broader context of constraints constructed by the government education policy (Moore, 1992:3 In Wilkin & Sankey, 1994). Instead, at *local level*, schools would encourage a bottom-up (B) level of training with the input from university, and other partners. Following the 6-step mode of training identified in Fig.15 above, the facilitators would be assessed by trainers, when they fed back the training into schools, in a sort of evaluation/follow-up procedure. Teachers, in turn, would be supported by a facilitator who would operate as a critical friend. Also, peers, or cluster of schools would support each other for the purpose of inquiry. Also, diary and/or videoing techniques would be important to keep for data recording. This way, CPD would go beyond the academic activity and INSET/CPD would be taken in a constructive way.

Importantly, bringing trainers from outside into (clusters of) schools would be a good idea for those schools in rural areas where the infra structure of transport/access presents difficulty in Colombia. Visits of trainers from RECOs, HEIs or training institutions for networks of schools could balance current deficiencies for INSET provision, particularly in rural/non-urban areas. It would certainly be cheaper and easier to bring one person in, rather than sending 15 people out of school for external training. Bringing in outsider speakers might obviate problems of focus, and high costs as well.

The adoption of a built-in INSET system in schools involving any form of inquiry would be profitable in the country in respect of resources (staff, budget, time). Most importantly, it would be easy to organise. It would perhaps solve the problems of many teachers who 1) cannot go out to take INSET for lack of time or financial resources. Above all, 2) it would empower the schools, as effective/improved schools capable of (self) providing INSET, tackling their own needs, and filling the gaps identified between policy and practice. This project would be sustainable, cheap, and would involve everybody in schools, unlike other types of INSET. It would facilitate the process of effectiveness measurement by 1) putting into practice what the teachers learn, 2) evaluating and 3) following up it (see Fig. 15 above), so as to learn new lessons from it, spreading and sharing results with other schools. Importantly, the institutionalisation of SBI might give middle and senior managers (who hardly ever go out to take any training) a need and opportunities for training and updating not only in areas of management, but also INSET/CPD related.

This need for managers' training might also be supported by the idea proposed above upon the standardisation of National Professional Qualifications for School Managers (see 7.7.1 above).

## Drawbacks

An imminent implication of the institutionalisation of SBI and the professional training days is that of the wider context. As happens sometimes in the UK, in the effort to solve internal problems, schools train teachers according to local needs, causing some kind of isolation from other schools and above all from the national context. A suggestion could possibly be to involve HEI trainers for a theoretical, and intellectual/rational justification. University trainers have original and available resources to provide INSET, that is, not simply validating existing provision but renewing it. Association of schools with University, particularly with Departments of Education (UDEs) might obviate the immediate perspective of being out of context/situation.

One other potential implication might well be that of funding. This problem might be partly solved by SOEs, through RECOs. They might provide part of the monies needed within the account of INSET/CPD, whilst schools might provide the other part by the concept of INSET. Schools might also exchange the Initial Teacher Training service (ITT) for that of In-service training (INSET), as it is done in the UK, or better, these might invest ITT profits in INSET.

Within the globalisation trend, staff development has increasingly taken the form of in-service training in the form of school-based INSET (SBI) (Dalin et al., 1993:24) in Europe, US, and especially in the UK with some success, as this study demonstrated. Thus, there is a possibility that this type of INSET might also work in Colombia. It seems reasonable to think that it is a potential-answer to some of the problems that In-service teacher training currently faces in Colombia. It could well operate successfully, provided cultural transfer, ethos of schools and other adaptations were considered.

However, it has to be taken into account that it is not easy to change the culture of a school, and the meaning of educational change, as change is not always developmental (Nisbet, 1980). Change is a process that deals with the entire school culture, where the school, as the unit of change, will have to develop its own capabilities (Dalin et al., 1993:24). To do so, change has to be facilitated, and have to occur progressively at individual, inter-group and institutional levels. But for change to be effective, this has to be voluntary, not ...imposed (Fullan (1991:31), given that real change involves loss, anxiety, and struggle (Marris, 1975). In Colombia, at micro and macro levels of the educational system, it is essential to understand what is going on in the classroom, and then aims/objectives may be determined for the CPD of teachers. Getzels, and Thelen conceptualise the school as a social system with a goal-behaviour where the ethos involves institutional, group and individuals (Getzels, and Thelen's (1960) In Owens, R 1998:59). They refer to the organisational behaviour as a function of the *interaction* between the demands



of organisational requirements, and the needs-disposition of the individuals in the organisation (Owens, 1998:71). Thus, a reconciliation of aims of institutions and individual teachers is important, because, as Bush puts it, formal aims of schools...are often utopian... (Bush, 1995:2). Therefore, reconciliation of these elements is paramount for the CPD of teachers through, perhaps, educational management training for managers and teachers. That is an area underdeveloped in education in Colombia, indeed. Apart from individual INSET, which is still seen as staff development, other staff development needs linked, for example, to the school culture, organisational issues, etc., are seldom met by teachers (Dalin et al., 1993:24) in Colombia.

It seems then, worth trying SBI as a mode that blends the demands of organisational requirements and the needs-dispositions of the individual in the organisation (Owens, R, 1998). This up-wards organisation and developmental system would seek to harness own professional learning and give teachers a greater degree of ownership. SBI would attempt to tackle national top-down impositions, and regional definitions of their training, with local initiatives.

Top down (T) and bottom up (B) modes of INSET would be integrated/blended to come up with a more practical, cheaper and reliable mode of CPD. In line with the theoretical underpinning of INSET in the UK represented in 3.4 (see also Fig.15), the Colombian illustration of NSET/CPD would include T-down and B-up styles for organisation and delivery. By implication, these modes, would originate a new inter-actional (I) mode of INSET, as Fig. 20 suggests below, though in a more horizontal way, given the decentralisation of the political, economical and educational systems.

**SUGGESTED MODES OF CPD FOR COLOMBIA**

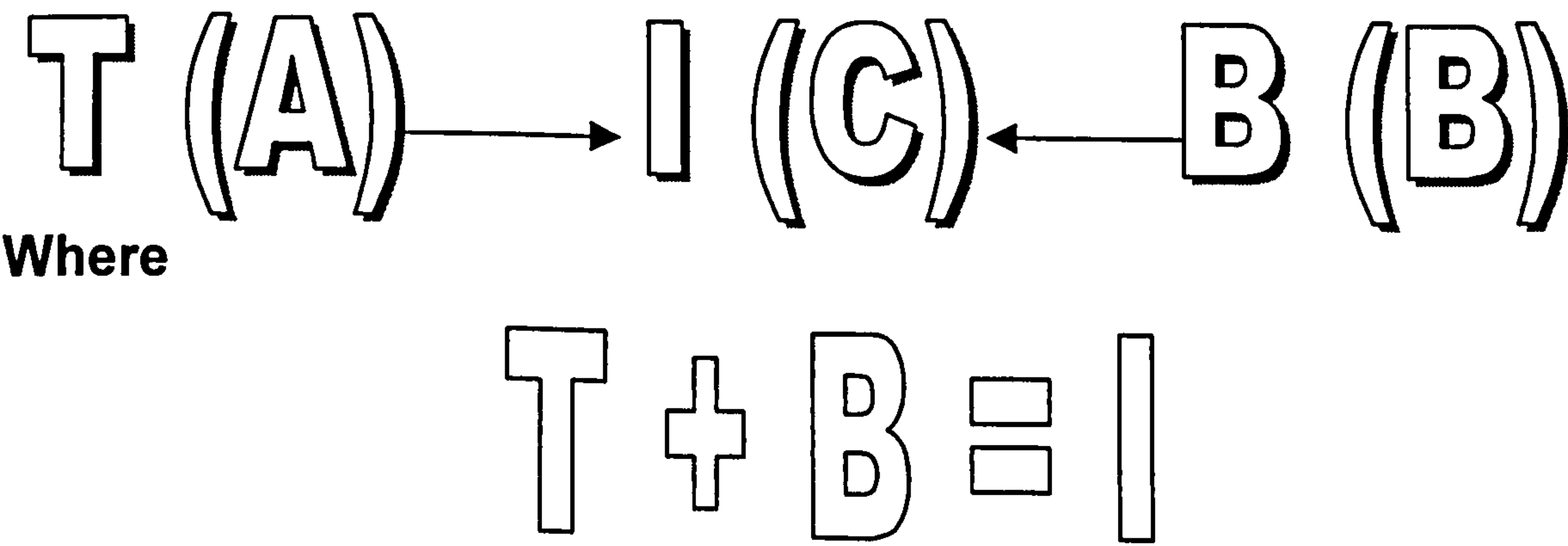


Fig.20 (Terms used here, are adapted from Fig. 7 in 3.4, by implication)

Finally, it seems worth clarifying that the three innovations proposed in this section (7.7) would not be generated through a political conception, where leaders get committed...to the power of new ideas, and additional resources...(Fullan, 1991: 27-28). Neither, would it be done for personal reasons or to appear innovative. As a result, implications/innovations proposed might be ends in themselves. Relevant questions may, however, be:

1. What might new change/reforms imply for the teaching profession in Colombia?
2. Would the 3 changes proposed attend to the actual teachers' needs? If any of these changes are to be implemented, how it/these might be monitored for their effects/effectiveness?.
3. Would rural areas of the various regions of the country benefit from the 3 proposed changes, or these would solely benefit urban areas?
4. Is it worth trying new changes in the NSET/CPD, when the government appears to give low priority to teachers and education in Colombia?
5. Would the Unions and Teachers accept the changes proposed concerning their professional development?
6. Would the three reforms help to bridge the gap in the existing managerial area of INSET/CPD in Colombia?
7. Would these changes/developments make any easier the fulfilment of the existing gap in the theoretical underpinning of INSET/CPD in Colombia?

All or any of the above might form part of the research questions to be addressed by subsequent investigations of the education and In-service training INSET/CPD of teachers in Colombia.



## EPILOGUE

In spite of all acknowledged limitations of studying one system and trying to look for lessons for another due to the problem of cultural transfers, this study does seem to be illuminating general themes associated with centralised-decentralised discussion over the spreading of good practice. Tentatively, there exists the possibility to begin to think of Colombia, as a good context whereby certain lessons from the UK, concerning teacher training, particularly INSET, could be of any applicability provided changes and adaptations are made.

The three proposals above might not represent perfect solutions. Nonetheless, they can be seen as having a justifiable theoretical basis and might offer practical answers for the problems presently faced by Colombian teachers in respect of their professional life and the changes it implies at different levels. The creation of a GTC (T-D national mode), and the institutionalisation of SBI with AR in classrooms as a potential alternative to involve teachers and schools in a more interactional (I) bottom-up (B) developmental modes, would seem to be cheap and sustainable projects. These would offer long-term possibilities for the nation to produce healthy schools with capable teachers, not the other way round. The creation of a TTA, on the other hand, might well imply expenditure and risks that perhaps the Colombian government might not be prepared to undertake.

The final decision has to be made by the Ministry of Education in Santafe de Bogota (see Map of Colombia in Ap. E4), and especially by the Secretary of Education Office (SOE) in charge of OFEREPs in Villavicencio (Meta) (see Ap.4) where these implications might well be first presented/proposed.

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**LIST OF APPENDICES (A, B, C , D, E)**

*APPENDIX A: Observation Instruments.....*

*APPENDIX B: Questionnaires for Secondary Teachers in the UK and list of Tables  
showing results .....*

*APPENDIX C: Interview Schedules.....*

*APPENDIX D: Interviews’ tapes available upon request .....*

*APPENDIX E: Implications from the UK Study: Structural Reforms in Colombia.....*



APPENDIX A

OBSERVATION INSTRUMENTS

SCHOOL-BASED INSET: OBSERVATION TABLE PLAN

TOPIC	REWARDS AND PUNISHMENT	COMMENTS
PURPOSE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-</li><li>-</li></ul>	
PROVIDER		
ORGANISER	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-</li></ul>	
DELIVERER	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-</li></ul>	
PROCESS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-</li></ul>	
FOCUS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Methodology</li><li>- Discipline</li><li>- Assessment</li><li>- Planning</li><li>- Problem solving</li><li>- School policy</li><li>- Decision Making</li><li>- Others</li></ul>	
TEACHERS' ATTITUDE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Very positive</li><li>- Positive</li><li>- Neutral</li><li>- Negative</li></ul>	
INPUT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- A great deal</li><li>- A certain amount</li><li>- OK</li><li>- Very little</li></ul>	
UTILITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Extremely useful</li><li>- Very useful</li><li>- Average</li><li>- Not useful</li></ul>	
ADAPTED TO TEACHERS NEEDS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Fully</li><li>- More or less</li><li>- Partly</li><li>- Not at all</li></ul>	

TABLE PLAN RECORDING TEACHERS' INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

ACCORDING TO CATEGORIES (DEPARTMENTAL INSET)

Participnt	C	A	T	E	G	O	TOTALS In minutes
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
	Propossing	Suppoting	Disagreeing	Giving info.	Seekng info.	Building	
Chairman John	vv			vvvvv	vvvvvvv	vv	15
Speaking contributions	/=-/-			//-//=	///-///-/	//=	25
Sue	vvv		vv				5
SCs	//-//=		/-//==				11
Carol	vvvvv	v		vvv			8
SCs	/-//=	/=		//=/			13
Peter		v		vv		vv	5
SCs		/		/=/		//	5
Angela			v	vv			3
SCs			/=	/-/-			7
Celine			vv	vv			4
SCs			/=/	/=-/-			9
Other (Sp. Tch)		v		vv		v	4
SCs		/-		//=		/=	9
TOTALS	10'	3'	5'	16'	7'	5'	



APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRES FOR SECONDARY TEACHERS IN THE UK  
AND LIST OF TABLES SHOWING RESULTS (TABLES 1-15)

Questionnaire for Secondary Teachers (UK)

TABLE 1 Degrees held by Teachers.....

TABLE 2 Initial Training Providers and Teacher’s Major Area.....

TABLE 3 Post-degree courses taken by teachers as part of INSET.....

TABLE 4 Sponsorship for INSET in the UK.....

TABLE 5 Secondment to Undertake INSET.....

TABLE 6 Recent attendance at INSET and Providers in the UK.....

TABLE 7 Teachers’ Preference for INSET in the UK.....

TABLE 8 Teachers’ Motivation to Attend at INSET.....

TABLE 9 School-based INSET (SBI) in the UK.....

TABLE 10 Frequency of School-based INSET.....

TABLE 11 Attendance at SBI beyond the five compulsory days training.....

TABLE 12 Partners in the provision of SBI.....

TABLE 13 Focus and implications of SBI in real practice.....

TABLE 14 Implications of INSET in the classroom.....

TABLE 15 Meeting Teachers’ needs (by region).....

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

This questionnaire aims to find out what is the situation of INSET in secondary schools in England and Wales so as to consider the applicability of the learnt lessons for development in educational policy in Colombia. Your co-operation will be very much appreciated and any information received will be treated confidentially. The questionnaire will consist of two parts, i.e. A (personal) and B (about INSET).

PART A (About your particular case and INSET)

1a. Do you hold any of the following higher education qualifications?  
BA( ) BSc( ) BEd( ) Cert.Ed.( ) Other ( ).Please specify

1b.Where did you receive your Initial Teacher Training, PGCE or equivalent(eg BEd)?  
University ( ) College ( ) Elsewhere ( ) Please specify

2. What did you major in in your initial training?  
English ( ) French ( ) Spanish ( ) Other ( ) Please specify

3. Have you ever read for a post-graduate qualification as part of INSET?  
Yes ( ) No ( ) If yes, for which one?  
Certificate/Diploma( ) MEd.( ) PhD( ) Others( )  
(if not, please go to six)

4. Who was that INSET course paid by?  
yourself( ) school( ) LEAs ( ) Others ( )Please specify

5a. Did you apply for secondment while you followed the INSETcourse?  
Yes ( ) No ( )



5b. Did you follow the INSET course part-time?

Yes ( )      No ( )

6. Have you recently attended any other kind of INSET ?

Yes ( )      No ( ) if yes, how recently? Who was the provider?

\_\_\_\_\_

7. What kind of INSET do you personally prefer?

School-based INSET ( )      University INSET ( )      LEAs INSET ( )      Other ( ) Give brief reason please

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

8. What is your motivation to attend INSET? Tick any which apply

personal-satisfaction ( )      eventual financial gain( )  
professional advancement( )      Other ( )      Please explain briefly

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**PART B.(About INSET in your school / SBI )**

9. Who currently organises INSET (not just training days) for teachers in your school?

LEAs ( )      University Departments of Education ( )      School ( )      Other ( )

10. How often does INSET occur in your school ?

Only on training days ( )      Additionally, once a year ( )      More frequently( )

11. Is it compulsory for you to attend any INSET beyond the training days?

Yes ( )      No ( ) If yes, why?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_.

12. Is there any partnership between your school and University Departments of Education and/or LEAs relating to INSET organisation and/or delivery ?

Yes ( )      No ( )      If yes, how does it work?

13.What is the focus given to the INSET in your school?

School Policy ( )      Methodology ( )      Planning ( )      Problem solving ( )  
Decision making ( )      Others ( )      Please specify

14. If it deals with teaching methods, does INSET have any implications for your classroom?

Yes ( )      No ( ).      If yes how is it reflected in your practice?

15. Do you think that INSET planners in your school take into account teachers' needs?

Yes ( )      No ( ).      Please give reasons for your choice.

**PLEASE RETURN IT ON ...** \* Thanks for your time and co-operation.

Marleny Jimenez. PhD Student, Dept of Education, University of Newcastle



APPENDIX B

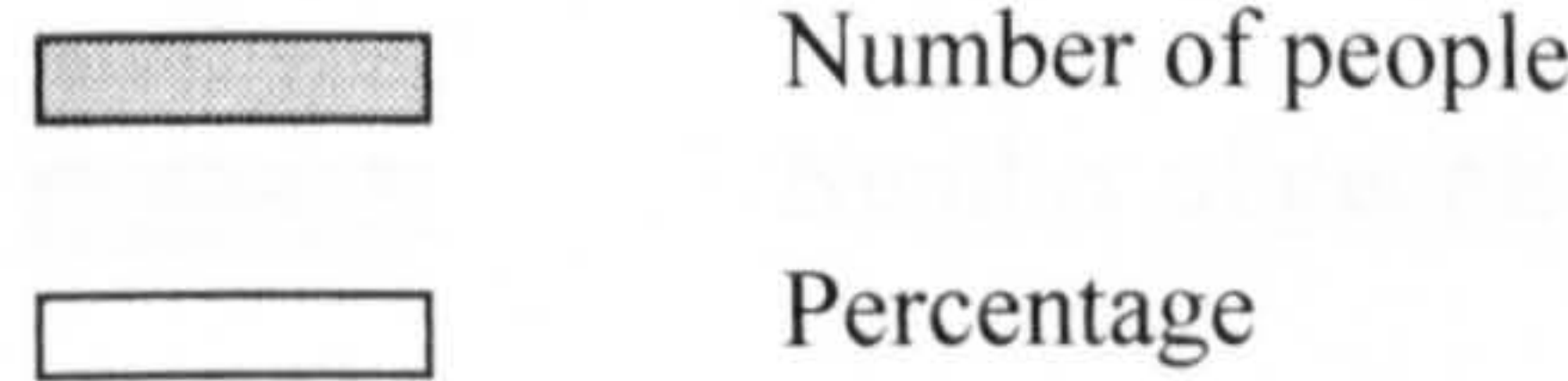
SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRES

SUMMARY FOR QUESTION No 1a:

DEGREES HELD BY TEACHERS IN THE UK

Qualification ⇒ Region ↓	BA	BSc	BEd	PGC E	CEd/ Dipl	MA  MSc	MEd	Oth.	None/ NA	NR	Total
Northeast 42 people	19	2	8	19	2	8	4	3	1	0	66
%	29	3	12	29	3	12	5	5	2	0	100
London 63 people	33	4	14	8	19	7	1	0	2	0	88
%	37	5	16	9	21	8	1	0	2	0	100
Northwest 57 people	19	16	9	10	19	4	3	2	0	1	83
%	23	19	11	12	23	5	4	2	0	1	100
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-
Cardiff 30 people	6	5	16	1	10	2	0	0	0	0	40
%	15	13	39	3	25	5	0	0	0	0	100
Row Totals	77	27	47	38	50	21	8	5	3	1	277
%	27	10	17	14	18	8	3	2	1	0	100

Table 1.





SUMMARY FOR QUESTIONS No 1b & 2:

INITIAL TRAINING PROVIDERS AND TEACHERS' MAJOR AREA

ITT Provider ⇒  Region ↓	Univ	Coll.	Other	None/ NA	Totals	Langu ages	Schol &Oths	Lang /Oths	NR	Major Area ⇐  Total
Northeast 42 people	23	18	1	0-	42	28	13	1	0	⇐
%	55	43	2	0	100	67	31	2	0	
London 63people	34	26	1	2	63	35	24	1	3	⇐
%	54	41	2	3	100	55	38	2	5	
Northwest 57 people	25	28	2	3	58	12	42	1	2	⇐
%	43	49	3	5	100	21	73	2	4	
Birmingham	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	⇐
	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	
Cardiff 30 people	6	23	0	1	30	8	18	2	2	⇐
%	20	77	0	3	100	27	59	7	7	
Row Totals	88	95	4	6	193	83	97	5	7	192
%	46	49	2	3	100	43	50	3	4	100

Table 2

Number of people

Percentage



SUMMARY FOR QUESTION No 3:

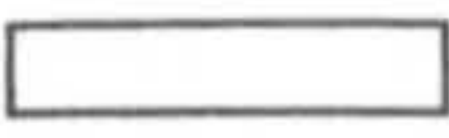
POST-DEGREE COURSES TAKEN BY TEACHERS AS PART OF INSET

Qualification ⇒  Region ↓	YES	NO	NR		CEd/ Dipl.	MA/ MEd	PhD	EdD	NR	Degree ⇐
Northeast 15/42	15	27	0		5	9	1	3	0	⇐
36%	36	64	0		28	49	6	17	0	
London 15/63	15	48	0		8	6	2	0	1	⇐
24%	24	76	0		47	35	12	0	6	
Northwest 17/57	17	37	3		9	11	2	0	0	⇐
30%	30	65	5		41	50	9	0	0	
Birmingham	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	
Cardiff 20/30	20	10	0		4	20	0	0	1	⇐
67%	67	33	3		16	80	0	0	4	
Row Totals	67	122	3		26	46	5	3	1	192
%	35	64	2		32	57	6	4	1	100

Table 3.



Number of people



Percentage

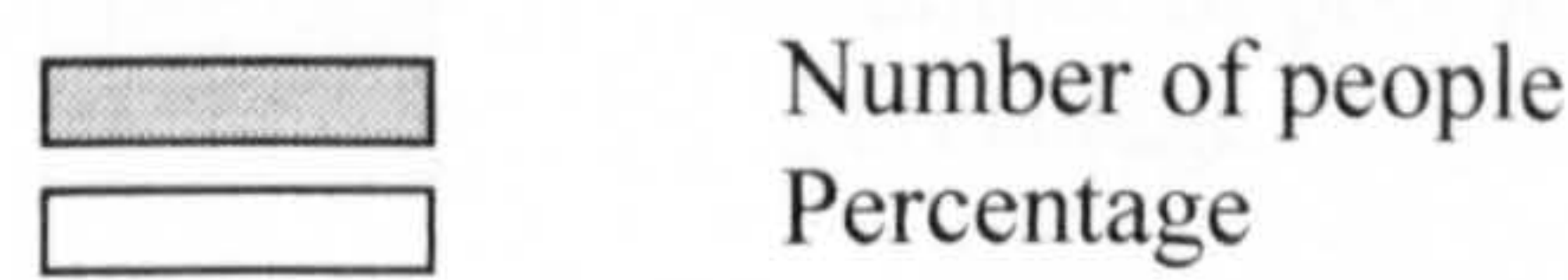


SUMMARY FOR QUESTIONS 4, 5

SPONSORSHIP AND SECONDMENT FOR INSET IN THE UK

Sponsorship⇒  Region ↓	Self	Sch.	LEA	Self/ Sch.	Self/ LEA	Oths  Colleg	Self/O ths	NA /  NR	Second ment  ↓
Northeast (42 subjects)	3	2	3	4	2	1	0	-	3
%	20	13	20	27	13	7	0	0	20
London (63 subjects)	3	0	10	2	0	0	0	0	2
%	20	0	67	13	0	0	0	0	13
Northwest 35 peopole	6	2	5	3	1	0	0	0	3
%	35	12	29	18	6	0	0	0	18
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cardiff (30 subjects)	6	3	3	2	3	2	1	0	1
%	30	15	15	10	15	10	5	0	5
Row Totals	18	7	21	11	6	3	1	0	9
(40/20.8%)	28	10	32	16	9	4	1	0	13.4

Table 4



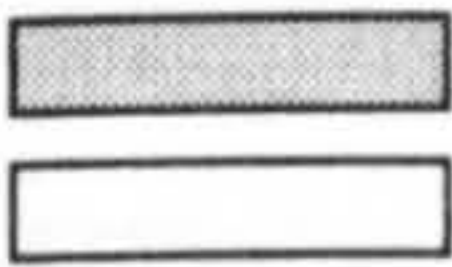


SUMMARY FOR QUESTIONS No 5a/b

SECONDMENT TO UNDERTAKE INSET

Secondment ⇒  Region ↓	YES	NO	NR	Totals	Full Time	Part- Time	NR	Totals  ↓
Northeast	3	11	1	15	0	11	4	15
%	20	73	7		0	73	27	
London	2	12	1	15	1	9	5	15
%	13	80	7		7	60	33	
Northwest	3	14	0	17	3	14	0	17
%	18	82	0		18	82	0	
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cardiff	1	18	1	20	1	18	1	20
%	5	90	5		5	90	5	
Row Totals	9	55	3	67	5	52	10	67
%	13.4	83	4		7	78	15	100

Table 5





SUMMARY FOR QUESTIONS No 6, 8.

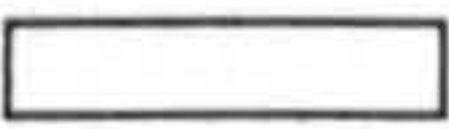
RECENT ATTENDANCE AT INSET AND PROVIDERS IN THE UK

Recent Attendance ⇒ Region ↓	YES ↓	NO	NR/N A	Total	LEA	Sch.	Univ.	Ex.B.	Oths	NR	Provi ders  ←
Northeast 42 subjects	21	12	9	42	6	4	2	2	3	5	←
	50	29	21		27	18	9	9	14	23	
London 63 people	44	12	7	63	3	5	14	1	12	11	←
	70	19	11		7	11	30	2	26	24	
Northwest 35/57 people	35	13	9	57	11	6	1	3	6	9	←
	61	23	16		30	17	3	8	17	25	
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Cardiff 30 People	22	5	3	30	11	3	0	0	3	5	←
	73	17	10		49	14	0	0	14	23	
Row Totals	122	42	28	192	31	18	17	6	24	30	126
	63	22	15	100	25	14	13	5	19	24	100

Table 6



Number of people



Percentage



SUMMARY FOR QUESTION No 7

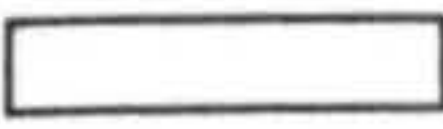
TEACHERS' PREFERENCE FOR INSET IN THE UK

Preferences ⇒  Region ↓	LEA	SBI.	Univ.	Any	All	Depen ds	Oths.	NR
Northeast 42 people	12	13	16	2	2	1	3	1
%	24	26	32	4	4	2	6	2
London) 63 people	9	12	26	4	1	0	13	5
%	18	17	37	6	1	0	19	7
Northwest 57 people	13	25	16	3	1	0	4	7
%	19	37	23	4	1	0	6	10
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
%								
Cardiff 30 people	11	7	4	2	1	3	1	2
%	36	23	13	6	3	10	3	6
Row Totals	45	57	62	10	5	5	21	15
%	20	26	28	5	2	2	10	7

Table 7



Preference



Percentages



SUMMARY FOR QUESTIONS No 8

TEACHERS' MOTIVATION TO ATTEND AT INSET

Motivators ⇒  Region ↓	Pers. Satisf	Fin. Gain	Prof. Adv.	Oths	All	NR	Totals  ↓
Northeast 42 people	30	0	25	2	3	0	60
%	50	0	42	3	5	0	
London 63 people	38	0	48	15	1	0	102
%	37	0	47	15	1	0	
Northwest 57 people	32	5	37	12	1	1	88
%	36	6	42	14	1	1	
Birmingham							
Cardiff 30 people	13	1	22	0	1	1	38
%	34	3	57	0	3	3	
Row Totals	113	6	132	29	6	2	288
	39	2	46	10	2	1	100

Table 8

Number of People

Percentages



SCHOOL-BASED INSET (SBI) IN THE UK

SUMMARY FOR QUESTIONS No 9&12

CURRENT PROVIDERS OF SBI AND PARTNERS

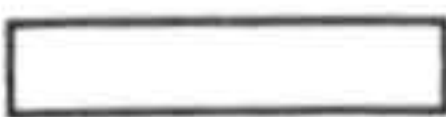
Providers ⇒ Region ↓	LEA	Sch.	Univ.	Oth. Ext.B.	NR	All	Partnersh. ↓
Northeast 42 people	22	32	9	6	1	0	9
%	31	46	13	9	1	0	21%
London 63 people	10	54	3	6	1	0	11
%	14	73	4	8	1	0	17%
Northwest 57 people	17	40	4	10	2	5	27
%	22	51	5	13	3	6	48%
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cardiff 30 people	9	30	2	1	0	0	17
%	21	72	5	2	0	0	56%

England 162 people	49	126	16	22	4	5	47
%	22	57	7	10	2	2	73
Wales 30 people	9	30	2	1	0	0	17
%	21	72	5	2	0	0	27
Row Totals	58	156	18	23	4	5	64
%	22	58	7	9	2	2	100

Table 9



Number of People



Percentage

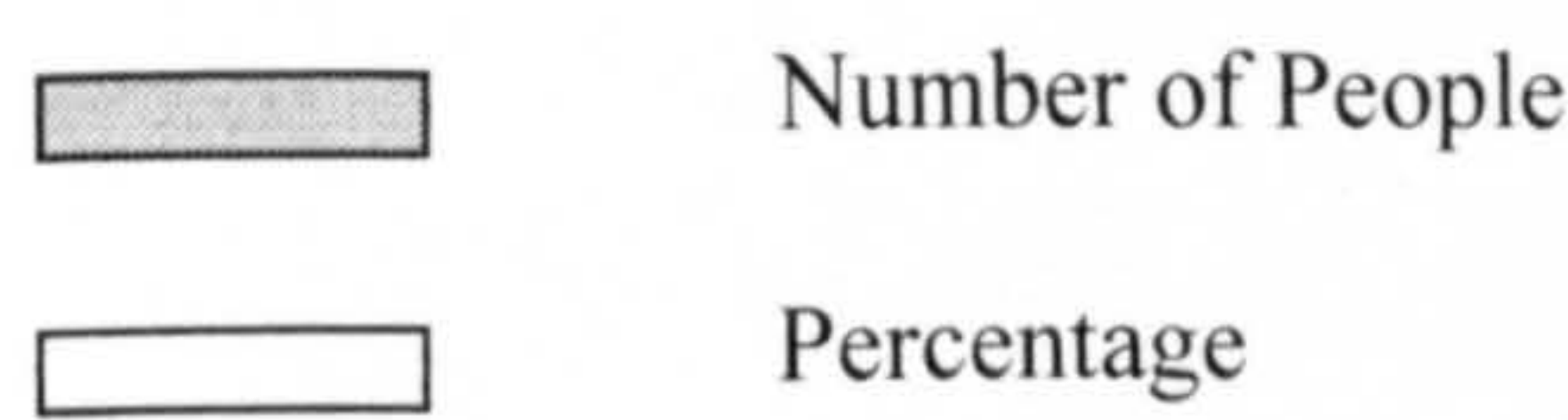


SUMMARY FOR QUESTION No 10

FREQUENCY OF SBI

Frequency ⇒  Region ↓↓	Only on Training Days	Additionally once a year	More frequently	NR	Totals
Northeast 42 people	21	6	14	1	42
%	51	14	33	2	100
London 63 people	32	5	27	0	64
%	50	8	42	0	100
Northwest 57 people	25	0	31	1	57
%	44	0	54	2	100
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-
Cardiff 30 people	4	0	26	0	30
%	13	0	87	0	100
Total Rows 192 people	83	11	98	2	194
%	43	6	50	1	100

Table 10





SUMMARY OF QUESTION No 11:

ATTENDANCE AT SBI BEYOND THE FIVE COMPULSORY DAYS TRAINING

ATTENDANCE ⇒  Region ↓	Voluntary	Compulsory	Don't Know	NR	Totals
Northeast 42 People	31	10	0	1	42
%	74	24	0	2	
London 63 People	46	15	0	2	63
%	73	24	0	3	
Northwest 57 People	45	6	2	4	57
%	78	11	4	7	
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-
Cardiff 30 People	16	12	1	1	30
%	54	40	3	3	
Row Totals	138	43	3	8	192
%	72	22	2	4	100

Table 11

Number of people

Percentage



SUMMARY FOR QUESTION No 12

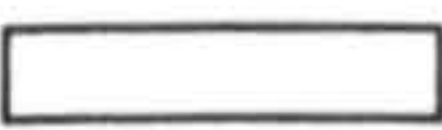
PARTNERS IN THE PROVISION OF SBI

Partnership⇒  Region ↓	YES	NO	DK	NR	Total	Univ .	Sch/ Clust ers	LEA s	Oth s	NR	Partn ers  ←
Northeast 42 people	9	28	2	3	42	2	0	3	1	4	9
%	21	67	5	7	100	20	0	30	10	40	100
London 63 people	11	45	5	2	63	3	0	2	1	4	10
%	17	72	8	3	100	30	0	20	10	40	100
Northwest 57 people	27	15	8	7	57	5	2	8	2	11	26
%	48	26	14	12	100	18	7	29	7	39	100
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
%											
Cardiff 30 people	17	11	0	2	30	8	1	2	0	3	14
%	56	37	0	7	100	58	7	14	0	21	100
Row Totals	64	99	15	14	192	18	3	15	4	22	62
%	33	52	8	7		29	5	24	6	36	100

Table 12



Number of People



Percentage



SUMMARY FOR QUESTION No 13.

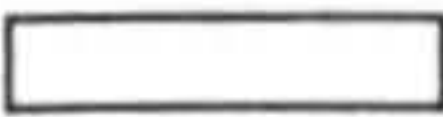
FOCUS AND IMPLICATIONS OF SBI IN REAL PRACTICE

FOCUS ⇒  Region ↓	Sch. Policy	Metho - dolog y	Plan	Prob Solv.	Dec.M ak	All	Oths	NR	Implicats in Classr.  YES ↓
Northeast	26	11	14	2	1	6	6	2	30
%	38	16	21	3	1	9	9	3	71
London	38	22	28	7	13	2	5	0	41
%	34	19	24	6	11	2	4	0	66%
Northwest	35	19	22	12	6	7	13	2	39
%	31	16	19	10	5	6	11	2	68
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cardiff	12	5	6	1	0	10	6	1	23
%	30	12	15	2	0	24	15	2	70
Row Totals	113	57	70	22	20	25	30	5	133
%	34	17	20	6	6	7	9	1	69.2

Table 13



Number of people



Percentage



SUMMARY OF QUESTION No 14

IMPLICATIONS OF INSET IN THE CLASSROOM (METHODOLOGY)

IMPLICATIONS IN CLASSR. PRACTICE ⇒ Region ↓	YES	NO	Depends/Sms/Oc asionally	NR	Totals
Northeast 42 People	30	8	0	4	42
%	71	19	0	10	
London 63 People	41	11	0	11	63
%	66	17	0	17	
Northwest 57 People	39	5	2	11	57
%	68	9	4	19	
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	
%					
Cardiff 30 People	23	1	1	5	30
%	77	3	3	17	
Row Totals	133	25	3	31	192
%	69	13	2	16	100

England	110	24	2	26	162
%	68	15	1	16	100
Wales	23	1	1	5	30
%	77	3	3	17	100
Total UK	133	25	3	31	192
%	69	13	2	16	100

Table 14



Number of people



Percentage



SUMAMRY OF QUESTION No 15.

SCHOOL-BASED INSET MEETS TEACHERS’NEEDS  
BY REGION

NEEDS MET ⇒  Region ↓	YES	NO	Sometimes/ Not Always/ Not sure	NR	Totals
Northeast 42 People	26	15	0	1	42
%	62	36	0	2	
London 63 People	42	14	7	0	63
%	67	22	11	0	
Northwest 57 People	43	9	3	2	57
%	75	16	5	4	
Birmingham	-	-	-	-	-
%					
Cardiff 30 People	24	3	0	3	30
%	80	10	0	10	

England	111	38	10	3	162
%	69	23	6	2	
Wales	24	3	0	3	30
%	80	10	0	10	
Total UK	135	41	10	6	192
%	71	21	5	3	100

Table 15

Number of people

Percentage



## APPENDIX C

### LIST OF INTERVIEW SCHEDULES (UK AND COLOMBIA)

- 1 Interview for Secondary Teacher Trainers in Universities in the UK*
- 2 Interviews for Secondary Teacher Trainers and Advisers of the LEAs in the UK*
- 3 Interviews for Secondary Teacher Trainers in the UK*
- 4 Interview for Secondary Language Teacher Trainers in the UK*
- 5 Interview for Secondary Schools Language Heads of Department in the UK*
- 6 Interview with Secondary School Head teachers and/or Deputy heads in the UK*
- 7 Interview for the Minister of Education's Representative (Dr Teresa Leon) in Colombia*
- 8 Interview with Head Teachers in Secondary Schools Colombia*
- 9 Interview with Language Teacher Trainers in Colombia*
- 10 Interview with Secretary of Education Officers in Colombia*
- 11 Interview with Secondary Teachers in Colombia*
- 12 Interview with a former CEP Director, currently the Director of a Language Open Access Centre in Villavicencio, Colombia*



APPENDIX C

1

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL  
TEACHER TRAINERS IN UNIVERSITIES IN THE UK.

This schedule is designed to collect background information on Secondary school Teacher’s INSET. The interview itself will set out to know Teacher trainer’s views about how the organisation and implementation of INSET is operating in the UK. It will also consider teacher’s different opportunities for INSET through their professional career. Any information collected will be only known by the university student researcher, and no names or individuals will be referred to or identified in reports.

• Personal profile of the interviewee

Before embarking specifically in INSET, May I just get a few background details please?

1.Name\_\_\_\_\_

2. What subjects did you major in during your initial training?-\_\_\_\_\_

3. What is your position whithin the current University Administration?\_\_\_\_\_

4. How long have you been a Teacher Trainer?\_\_\_\_\_

5. How did you come to be involved with the INSET programme?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

6. Did you have any training before getting involved in the programme?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

• About INSET

1. What are the **policies** for INSET in the university you work with in the UK?

- Probes: Who runs INSET ?  
For whom INSET is planned?  
How many times a year?  
Where about?  
For how long?  
Does the institutions provide secondment for teachers when they attend university INSET?  
Is this INSET free of charge?



2. What is the **focus** given to INSET in your university Department of Education?

Probes            Is it a subject based INSET?  
                      Does it deal with methodology, assessment,  
                      school policy,  
                      decision making,/ others?

3. To what extent do Teachers attend this kind of INSET?

Probes: How often?  
                      When?  
                      Where  
                      Why?

4. What kind of INSET do teachers mainly prefer?

5. Do planners of INSET in your department anticipate **teachers' needs** in a general way, or do they try to meet in more specific ways the needs of particular INSET groups?

6. Is there any kind of **evaluation / follow up** after INSET occurs?

Probes            What form does the evaluation take?  
                      Who does it?  
                      When?  
                      What follows after?

7. In what ways do teachers perceive that they benefit from your INSET?

Probes            Do you consider that INSET contribute to their staff development?  
                      How?  
                      Why?

8. Does the University have any **partnership** with schools/ LEAs in the organization and provision of INSET for secondary teachers?

Probes:            Do you look for that partnership, or do schools approach you?  
                      Who is responsible in your department and in the school to co-ordinate that  
                      partnership?  
                      Do you consider that schools fully take advantage of your INSET service,  
                      or on the contrary, they prevent teachers from using it?  
                      Do you participate in school-based INSET sessions?

9. Do you feel that your INSET (mainly dealing with teaching methods) has any **implications** in the teachers' classrooms?

Probes            How  
                      When  
                      Why

10. What is in your opinion the most appreciated venue for INSET according to your experience?

- Do you have any suggestions for an **IDEAL form of INSET** ?

Thanks for your time and co-operation  
 Marleny Jimenez,  
 PhD Student, Dept Education, Univ. of Newcastle



## **SPECIFIC QUESTIONS FOR THE LANGUAGE TRAINER**

1. What kinds of INSET events have been run by your department recently?

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

2. Do you think that MFL teachers are particularly interested in attending INSET

Probes:           What do you think are their particular motivations? (e.g. eventual financial gain, personal satisfaction, professional advancement).

3. Are there, in your experience, any particular kinds of INSET which seem to be a priority for Modern Foreign Language Teachers in this part of the country?

Probes:           a. Language skill  
                       b. methodology  
                       c. assessment  
                       d. others?

Thanks for your time and co-operation.

Marleny Jimenez.

PhD Student.

Department of Education, University of Newcastle.

2

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SECONDARY TEACHER  
TRAINERS AND ADVISERS OF THE LOCAL EDUCATION  
AUTHORITIES IN THE UK.**

This interview is designed to collect background information on the provision of Secondary school Teacher’s INSET by the Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in the UK. The interview will set out to collect Teacher trainers and Advisers’s views about how the organisation and implementation of INSET is operating. It will also consider teacher’s different opportunities for INSET throughout their professional career. Any information collected will be only known by the university student researcher, and no names or individuals will be referred to or identified in reports.

**Personal profile of the interviewee**

Before embarking specifically in INSET, May I just get a few background details please?

- 1. Name\_\_\_\_\_
- 2. What subjects did you major in during your initial training?-\_\_\_\_\_
- 3. What is your position within the current Educational Administration ?\_\_\_\_\_
- 4. How long have you been a Teacher Trainer/adviser?
- 5. How did you come to be involved with the INSET programme?
- 6. Did you have any training before getting involved in the programme?

**About the LEA**

• **Staff**

- 1. How many staff does the authority consist of?\_\_\_\_\_

Probes: How many:  
Inspectors  
Advisers  
Co-ordinators  
Teacher trainers  
INSET advisory committee members

- 2. What are their specific functions?
  - a. \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. Do they have any other additional functions apart from their main role?



## • Schools

4. How many schools does the authority work with? \_\_\_\_\_
5. Where are they located \_\_\_\_\_
6. What age are the students in those schools? \_\_\_\_\_
7. How many teachers are under the authority's supervision? \_\_\_\_\_
8. Is there any partnership between schools and this LEA for INSET? \_\_\_\_\_

## • Teachers' INSET

1. What are the **policies** for INSET in the LEA you work with in the UK?

Probes: Who runs INSET ?

For whom INSET is planned?

How many times a year?

Where about?

For how long?

Does the institutions provide secondment for teachers when they attend this type of INSET?

Is this INSET free of charge?

Does the LEA support teachers' post-graduate studies as part of INSET?

2. What is the **focus** given to INSET by this LEA?

Probes

Is it a subject based INSET?

Does it deal with methodology, assessment, school policy, decision making, whole school issues? others?

3. To what extent do Teachers **attend** this kind of INSET?

Probes: How often?

When?

Where

Why?

4. To what extent do Teachers **benefit** from this INSET?

Do you consider that INSET contributes to the staff development?

Why?

How?

5. Do teachers fully **accept** the INSET delivered by this Authority?

6. Do planners of INSET in the LEA take into account particular **teachers' needs**? If yes, how do you know about their needs?

7. Is there any kind of **evaluation and follow-up** after INSET occurs?

How does it work

When?

Who does it?

What follows after?

8. Do you work in **partnership** with schools/universities/others concerning INSET?

9. What is the most appreciated **venue** for INSET according to your experience?

10. Do you have any suggestions for an **IDEAL FORM OF INSET**?

**Thanks for your time and co-operation,**

3

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL  
TEACHER TRAINERS IN THE UK.**

**This schedule is designed to collect background information on Secondary school Teacher’s INSET. The interview itself will set out to know Teacher trainer’s views about how the organisation and implementation of INSET is operating in the UK. It will also consider teacher’s different opportunities for INSET through their professional career. Any information collected will be only known by the university student researcher, and no names or individuals will be referred to or identified in reports.**

**Personal profile of the interviewee**

Before embarking specifically in INSET, May I just get a few background details please?

- 1.Name\_\_\_\_\_
- 2. What subjects did you major in during your initial training?-\_\_\_\_\_
- 3. What is your position within the current Educational Administration?\_\_\_\_\_
- 4. How long have you been a Teacher Trainer?\_\_\_\_\_
- 5. How did you come to be involved with the INSET programme?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 6. Did you have any training before getting involved in the programme?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**About INSET**

- 1. What are the policies for INSET in the Language Centre you work with in the UK?

Probes: Who runs INSET ?  
For whom INSET is planned?  
How many times a year?  
Where about?  
For how long?  
Does the institutions provide secondment for teachers when they attend this type of NSET?  
Is this INSET free of charge?

- 2. What is the focus given to INSET in your organisation?

Probes Is it a subject based INSET?  
Does it deal with methodology, assessment, school policy, decision making, others?



3. To what extent do Teachers attend this kind of INSET?

Probes: How often?

When?

Where

Why?

4. To what extent do Teachers benefit from your INSET?

Do you consider that INSET contributes to the staff development?

Why?

How?

5. Do teachers fully accept this type of INSET delivered by your centre/organisation?

6. Do planners of INSET take into account **particular teachers' needs**. If yes, how do you know about their needs?

7. Is there any kind of **evaluation** and **follow-up** after INSET occurs?

How does it work?

When?

Who does it?

What follows after?

8. How have INSET courses run by you been interpreted by those involved so far?

9. What is the most appreciated venue for INSET according to your experience?

10. Do you have any suggestions for an ideal form of INSET?

Thanks for your time and co-operation.

Marleny Jimenez. PhD Student.  
University of Newcastle.

4

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL  
LANGUAGE TEACHER TRAINERS IN THE UK.**

This interview is designed to collect background information on Secondary school Teacher’s INSET. The interview will set out to collect Teacher trainer’s views about how the organisation and provision of INSET is operating in the UK. It will also consider teacher’s different opportunities for INSET throught their professional career. Any information collected will be only known by the university student researcher, and no names or individuals will be referred to or identified in reports.

**Personal profile of the interviewee**

Before embarking specifically in INSET, May I just get a few background details please?

- 1. Name\_\_\_\_\_
- 2. What subjects did you major in during your initial training?-\_\_\_\_\_
- 3. What is your position whithin the current Educational Administration?\_\_\_\_\_
- 4. How long have you been a Teacher Trainer?\_\_\_\_\_
- 5. How did you come to be involved with the INSET programme?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 6. Did you have any training before getting involved in the programme?  
\_\_\_\_\_

**About the teacher’s INSET**

- 1. What are the policies for INSET in the organisation / LEA you work with in the UK?

Probes: Who runs INSET ?  
For whom INSET is planned?  
How many times a year?  
Where about?  
For how long?  
Does the institutions provide secondment for teachers when they attend this type of NSET?  
Is this INSET free of charge?

- 2. What is the focus given to INSET in your organisation?

Probes            Is it a subject based INSET?  
Does it deal with methodology, assessment,  
school policy,  
decision making,  
others?



3. To what extent do Teachers attend this kind of INSET?

Probes: How often?

When?

Where and why?

4. To what extent do Teachers benefit from your INSET?

Do you consider that INSET contributes to the staff development?

Why?

How?

5. Do teachers fully accept this type of INSET delivered by your organisation?

6. Do you/planners of INSET in your organisation anticipate the Teachers' needs in a general way, or do you try to meet in more specific ways the needs of particular schools, departments, groups?

7. Is there any kind of follow-up after INSET occurs?

How does it work

When?

Who does it?

What follows after?

8. How have INSET courses been interpreted by those involved so far?

9. What is the most appreciated venue for this INSET according to your experience?

10. Do you have any suggestions for an ideal form of INSET?

### **SPECIFIC QUESTIONS FOR...**

1. What kinds of INSET events have been run by you recently?

a.

b.

c.

2. Are there, in your experience, any particular kinds of INSET which seem to be a priority for Modern Foreign Language Teachers?

Probes:

a. Language skill

b. methodology

c. assessment

d. others?

Thanks for your time and co-operation.

5

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL  
LANGUAGE HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS IN THE UK.**

This interview is designed to collect background information on Secondary school Language Teacher’s INSET.. The interview will set out to collect HoD’s views about how the organisation and provision of Language INSET is operating in the UK. It will also consider any other opportunities teachers have for INSET throughout their professional career. Any information collected will be only known by the university student researcher, and no names or individuals will be referred to or identified in reports.

• **Personal profile of the interviewee**

Before embarking specifically in INSET, May I just get a few background details please?

1.Name\_\_\_\_\_

2. What subjects did you major in during your initial training?-\_\_\_\_\_

3. How long have you been a Head of Department?\_\_\_\_\_

4. Are you in charge of the In-service training in your department?\_\_\_\_\_

Probes:           How did you come to get to be involved with the INSET programme?

                      Were you given any kind of preparation before?

• **About INSET and School policies**

1. What are the policies for INSET in the school?

Probes: How many times a year does INSET occur in the school?

                      For how long?

                      What areas are usually covered when it occurs in school?

2. Who organises INSET (training days) for teachers at school?

Probes: Is there any sub-committee which has this responsibility at school?

                      Is it organised by the Head teacher?

                      Is it organised by LEAs?



**3. Who delivers INSET when it occurs in the school?**

**Probes:** Is there a special mentor at school in charge of the delivery?

Has the school any partnership with LEAs, University or Private Associations for the delivery of INSET (training days)?

If yes, how does it work?

**4. What is the focus given to INSET when it occurs in the school/department?**

**5. What are the immediate implications of INSET in the school/classroom?**

**6. Do teachers fully accept the type of INSET delivered by the school/department?**

**7. Do you/planners of INSET in your school/department anticipate the Teachers' needs in a general way, or do you try to meet in more specific ways the needs of particular departments, groups?**

**8. Is there any kind of evaluation and follow-up after INSET occurs in your school/department/others? How does it work?**

**9. How have school INSET days been interpreted by those involved (HoDs, teachers)?**

**10. Besides the training days, are language teachers provided with any another kind of INSET?**

**Probes:** a bought in INSET?

off school INSET

Others?

What is the main focus?

Who pays for the INSET?

**11. Does the school provide secondment for teachers when they attend INSET courses others than school?**

**12. Are the teachers allowed to read for post-graduate courses while In service?**

**Probes:** Does the government/school pay for those post-graduate courses?

What does happen after the teachers graduate?

- Do you have any suggestion for an ideal form of INSET in your school or do you think that the kind of INSET delivered so far is working well ?

**Thanks a lot for your time.**

6

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HEAD TEACHERS AND/OR  
DEPUTY HEADS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE UK.**

This interview is designed to collect background information on the school's INSET programme. The main interview with the Head will be conducted during the fieldwork day and will provide an opportunity to collect his/her views on how the organisation and implementation of INSET is progressing. It will also consider teachers' different opportunities for INSET. The information collected will be known only by the university researcher, and no names or individuals will be referred to or identified in reports.

**Profile of the Deputy Head**

Before talking specifically about INSET in the school, May I just get a few background details please?

- 1.What is your name?\_\_\_\_\_
- 2.How long have you been the Deputy head at school?\_\_\_\_\_
- 3.What subjects did you major in during your initial training?\_\_\_\_\_
- 4.Have you in any way been involved in the INSET programme at school?\_\_\_\_\_
- 5.How long have you been involved in the programme?\_\_\_\_\_
- 6.How did you first get involved? \_\_\_\_\_
  - What preparation were you given?\_\_\_\_\_

• **About INSET and School policies**

1. What are the policies for INSET in the school?

- Probes:
- How many times a year does INSET occur in the school?
  - For how long?
  - What areas are usually covered?
  - Does the school provide secondment for teachers when they attend INSET courses others than the training days?
  - Are the teachers allowed to read for post-graduate courses while in service?
  - Does the government/school pay for those post-graduate course?



2. Who organises INSET (training days) for teachers at school?

Probes: Is there any sub-committee which has this responsibility at school?

Is it organised by the Head teacher?

Is it organised by LEAs?

3. Who delivers INSET when it occurs in the school?

Probes: Is there a special mentor at school in charge of the delivery?

Has the school any partnership with LEAs, and/or University

Departments of Education for the delivery of INSET (training days)? If

yes, how does it work?

4. What is the focus given to INSET when it occurs in the school?

5. What are the immediate implications of INSET in the school?

6. Do teachers fully accept the type of INSET delivered by the school?

7. Do you/planners of INSET in the school anticipate the Teachers' needs in a general way, or do you try to meet in more specific ways the needs of particular groups/departments?

8. Is there any kind of evaluation and follow-up after INSET occurs in the school? How does it work?

Probes: What form does it take

Who does it?

When?

What follows after?

9. How have school INSET days been interpreted by those involved (HoDs, teachers)?

10. Do you have any suggestion for an ideal form of INSET in your school or do you think that the kind of INSET delivered so far is working well ?

\*Thanks for your time and co-operation.

Marleny Jimenez (PhD Student)

Department of Education, University of Newcastle

7

INTERVIEW WITH THE REPRESENTATIVE OF THE MINISTRY OF  
EDUCATION IN COLOMBIA

Este instrumento fue diseñado con el fin de recoger información sobre la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS). La Entrevista busca conocer la opinión del Ministro de Educación o su representante y de las personas encargadas de la Capacitación de Profesores en Colombia en lo referente a políticas, organización e implementación de la misma. También considera las diferentes oportunidades que tienen los Profesores para ascender en el escalafón docente y la significación de estas en su vida profesional. Su colaboración es altamente apreciada y cualquier información compilada será sólo conocida por la Investigadora. Además ningún nombre o individuo será mencionado o identificado en los reportes sin previa autorización.

• Perfil del Entrevistado

Antes de hablar sobre CPS, puedo preguntarle sobre su vida profesional?

- 1. Nombre(opcional)\_\_\_\_\_
- 2.En qué área es graduada?\_\_\_\_\_
- 3. Ha adelantado otros estudios además del grado inicial, ej. Postgrado,etc.?\_\_\_\_\_
- 4.Cuál es su posición en la actual Administración ?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 5. Está involucrada (de alguna manera) en CPS, cómo? (ej. tutor, organizador,evaludador,etc.)  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 6. Tuvo alguna capacitación específica fuera de los grados ya enunciados antes de involucrarse con CPS, cuál, en caso que aplique?  
\_\_\_\_\_

• Sobre CPS

- 1. Cuales son las políticas que rigen CPS en el Ministerio de Educación y Secretarias de Educación ?

Variables      Qué clase de CPS existe?  
                    Quién la organiza?  
                    Para quienes se planea?  
                    Cántas veces al año?  
                    Dónde?  
                    Por cuánto tiempo?  
                    El Ministerio, / SE proporcionan reemplazo para los que atienden CPS?  
                    Se debe pagar por los cursos, quién paga?  
                    Qué beneficios trae la capacitación a los profesores que atienden los cursos?

- 2.Cuál es el tema/enfoque dado a los cursos organizados por el MEN / Secretaria de Educación?

Variables:      Tiene un enfoque temático?  
                    Tiene que ver con metodología



Con política educativa?  
 Currículo?  
 Toma de decisiones en la instituciones?  
 Recursos? Otros?

3. En qué medida atienden los profesores la capacitación que usted/es organizan?

Variables: Cuándo? Cada cuánto? Dónde? Por qué? (ej. voluntaria, obligatoria, etc.)

4. Qué clase de capacitación prefieren los profesores de Secundaria, por qué? \_\_\_\_\_

5. Los planeadores/organizadores de CPS en el Ministerio/Secretaria de Educación anticipan las necesidades de los profesores en una forma general, o tratan de suplir las necesidades de grupos particulares, ej. por áreas, sobre nuevos cambios educativos, etc. ?

6. Trabaja el Ministerio de Educación en consorcio con las Secretarías de Educación, Universidades/Industria, etc. en la planeación, organización y provisión de CPS?

Variables: El MEN busca la participación de ellos, o ellos lo contactan? Quién es responsable de coordinar estos programas con los asociados? Considera que los institutos de educación aprovechan CPS, o por el contrario, dificultan la asistencia del personal docente a los cursos?  
 El MEN organiza CPS (cursos específicos)?, usted participa en los cursos, cómo?

7. Cree que CPS tiene algunas implicaciones en la vida profesional de los profesores en el salón de clase, especialmente cuando trata de enseñanza, pedagogía, cómo?

8. Cómo perciben los profesores la capacitación que el MEN organiza en términos de calidad, cantidad, relevancia ?

9. Hay alguna clase de evaluación y seguimiento al entrenamiento de profesores después que los cursos terminan?

Variables: Qué forma toma la evaluación (ej. oral, cuestionarios, etc. )?  
 Quién la hace?  
 Cuándo?  
 Y qué sigue luego de aplicada la evaluación?

10. Cuál es en su experiencia el sitio favorito para la CPS, ej. Centros para Profesores, hoteles, etc.?

- Cuál es en su opinión la FORMA IDEAL para la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS) en Colombia?

Muchas gracias por su tiempo y cooperación.

MARLENY JIMENEZ MEDINA  
 PhD Student University of Newcastle  
 Julio, 1999

**8**  
**Interview with Secondary School Head Teachers**  
**in Colombia**

Este instrumento fue diseñado con el fin de recoger información sobre la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS). La Entrevista busca conocer la opinión de los Rectores sobre la organización e implementación de CPS en Colombia. También considera las diferentes oportunidades que tienen los Profesores para ascender en su carrera profesional. Su colaboración es altamente apreciada y cualquier información compilada será sólo conocida por la Investigadora. Además ningún nombre o individuo serán mencionados o identificados en los reportes.

• **Perfil del Entrevistado**

Antes de hablar sobre la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS), puedo preguntarle sobre su vida profesional?

- 1. Nombre(opcional)\_\_\_\_\_
- 2. En qué área esgraduado?\_\_\_\_\_
- 3. Ha adelantado otros estudios además del grado inicial, ej. Postgrado, etc.?\_\_\_\_\_
- 4. Cuál es su posición actual en la institución/administración?  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 5. Está involucrado (de alguna manera) en la CPS, cómo? (ej. tutor,organizador,etc.)  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 6. Tuvo alguna capacitación especial fuera de los grados ya enunciados antes de involucrarse con CPS, cuál?\_\_\_\_\_

**Sobre CPS**

- 1. Cuáles son las políticas que rigen CPS en el Instituto/Secretaria de Educación (SE)/ MEN?

Variables : Qué clase de CPS existe?  
Quién la organiza?  
Para quienes se planea?  
Cuántas veces al año?  
Dónde?  
Por cuánto tiempo?  
La institución/SE/MEN proporciona reemplazo para los que atienden CPS?  
Se debe pagar por los cursos, quién paga?  
Qué beneficios tienen los profesores que atienden los cursos?

- 2. Cuá es el tema/enfoque dado a los cursos de CPS en su institución/Ciudad?  
Variables: Tiene un enfoque temático?  
Tiene que ver con metodologia  
Con política educativa?  
Curriculo?  
Toma de decisiones en la institución?  
Recursos? Otros?

- 3. En qué medida atienden los profesores la capacitación?



Variables: Cuándo?  
Cada cuánto?  
Dónde? Por qué? (ej. voluntaria, obligatoria)

4. Qué tipo de capacitación prefieren los profesores de Secundaria, por qué? \_\_\_\_\_

5. Los planeadores/organizadores de CPS en su institución/SE/MEN anticipan las necesidades de los profesores, en una forma general, o tratan de suplir las necesidades de grupos particulares, ej. por áreas, cambios educativos?

6. Trabaja su instituto en consorcio con la SE/MEN, Universidad/Industria, etc. en la organización y provisión de Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria?

Variables: Usted busca la participación de ellos, o ellos lo contactan?  
-Quién es responsable en su instituto de coordinar estos programas con los otros?  
-Considera que los institutos de educación aprovechan CPS, o por el contrario, dificultan la asistencia del personal docente a los cursos?  
-Su instituto organiza CPS (cursos específicos)? usted participa en los cursos, cómo?

7. Cree que CPS tiene implicaciones en la vida profesional de los profesores en el salón de clase, especialmente cuando trata de métodos de enseñanza, cómo?

8. Cómo perciben los profesores la capacitación en términos de calidad, cantidad, relevancia ?

9. Hay alguna clase de evaluación y seguimiento después que los cursos terminan?

Variables: Qué forma toma la evaluación?  
Quién la hace?  
Cuándo?  
Y qué sigue luego de aplicada la evaluación?  
Qué forma toma el seguimiento de los entrenados/capacitados ej. observación ?

10.Cuál es en su experiencia el sitio favorito para CPS, ej. centros para profesores, hoteles, etc.?

Tiene algunas sugerencias para una FORMA IDEAL para la CPS en Colombia?

Muchas gracias por su tiempo y cooperación.

MARLENY JIMENEZ  
PhD Student  
University of Newcastle

9  
**Interview with Secretary of Education Officers in Colombia**

Este Instrumento fue diseñado con el fin de recoger Información sobre la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS). La Entrevista busca conocer su opinión sobre la organización e implementación de CPS en Colombia. También considera las diferentes oportunidades que tienen los Profesores para ascender en su carrera profesional. Su colaboración es altamente apreciada y cualquier Información recopilada será sólo conocida por la Investigadora. Además ningún nombre o individuo serán mencionados o identificados en los reportes.

• **Perfil del Entrevistado**

Antes de hablar sobre la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS), puedo preguntarle sobre su vida profesional?

- 1. Nombre(opcional)\_\_\_\_\_
- 2. En qué área es graduado?\_\_\_\_\_
- 3. Ha adelantado otros estudios además del grado inicial, ej. Postgrado, etc.?\_\_\_\_\_
- 4.Cuál es su posición actual en la institución/administración?\_\_\_\_\_
- 5. Está involucrado (de alguna manera) en la CPS, cómo? (ej. tutor, organizador, etc.)\_\_\_\_\_
- 6. Tuvo alguna capacitación especial fuera de los grados ya enunciados antes de involucrarse con CPS, cuál?\_\_\_\_\_

**Sobre CPS**

1. Cuáles son las políticas que rigen CPS en el Instituto/Secretaría de Educación (SE)/ MEN?

- Variables : Qué clase de CPS existe?  
Quién la organiza?  
Para quienes se planea?  
Cuántas veces al año?  
Dónde?  
Por cuánto tiempo?  
La institución/SE/MEN proporciona reemplazo para los que atienden CPS?  
Se debe pagar por los cursos, quién paga?  
Qué beneficios tienen los profesores que atienden los cursos?
2. Cuá es el tema/enfoque dado a los cursos de CPS que usted organiza?

- Variables: Tiene un enfoque temático?  
Tiene que ver con metodología  
Con política educativa?  
Currículo?  
Toma de decisiones en la institución?  
Recursos? Otros?
3. Variables: En qué medida atienden los profesores la capacitación?  
Cuándo?  
Cada cuánto?  
Dónde? Por qué? (ej. voluntaria, obligatoria)



4. Qué clase de capacitación prefieren los profesores de Secundaria, por qué? \_\_\_\_\_

5. Los planeadores/organizadores de CPS en la SE anticipan las necesidades de los profesores, en una forma general, o tratan de suplir las necesidades de grupos particulares, ej. por áreas, cambios educativos?

6. Trabaja la SE en consorcio con el MEN, Universidad/Industria, etc. en la organizacion y provisión de CPS?

Variables:    Usted busca la participacion de ellos, o ellos lo contactan?  
                   -Quién es responsable en la Secretaría de Educación de coordinar estos programas con los otros?  
                   -Considera que los institutos de educación aprovechan CPS, o por el contrario, dificultan la asistencia del personal docente a los cursos?  
                   -La SE organiza CPS (cursos específicos)? usted participa en los cursos, cómo?

7. Cree que CPS tiene implicaciones en la vida profesional de los profesores en el salón de clase, especialmente cuando trata de métodos de enseñanza, cómo?

8. Cómo perciben los profesores la capacitación en términos de calidad, cantidad, relevancia ?

9. Hay alguna clase de evaluación y seguimiento después que los cursos terminan?

Variables:    Qué forma toma la evaluación?  
                   Quién la hace?  
                   Cuándo?  
                   Y qué sigue luego de aplicada la evaluación?  
                   Qué forma toma el seguimiento de los entrenados/capacitados ej. observación?

10. Cuál es en su experiencia el sitio favorito para CPS, ej. centros para profesores, hoteles, etc.?

Tiene algunas sugerencias para una FORMA IDEAL de CPS en Colombia?

Muchas gracias por su tiempo y cooperación.

MARLENY JIMENEZ PhD Student  
 University of Newcastle  
 July, 1999

10  
**Interview with Secondary School Teachers in Colombia**

Este Instrumento fue diseñado con el fin de recoger Información sobre la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS). La Entrevista busca conocer su opinión sobre la organización e implementación de CPS en Colombia. También considera las diferentes oportunidades que tienen los Profesores para ascender en su carrera profesional. Su colaboración es altamente apreciada y cualquier Información copilada será sólo conocida por la Investigadora. Además ningún nombre o individuo serán mencionados o identificados en los reportes.

• **Perfil del Entrevistado**

Antes de hablar sobre la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS), puedo preguntarle sobre su vida profesional?

- 1. Nombre (opcional) \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. En qué área es graduado? \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. Ha adelantado otros estudios además del grado inicial, ej. Postgrado, etc.? \_\_\_\_\_
- 4. ¿Cuál es su posición actual en la institución/administración? \_\_\_\_\_
- 5. Está involucrado (de alguna manera) en la CPS, cómo? (ej. tutor, organizador, etc.) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
- 6. Tuvo alguna capacitación especial fuera de los grados ya enunciados antes de involucrarse con CPS, cuál? \_\_\_\_\_

**Sobre CPS**

- 1. Cuáles son las políticas que rigen CPS en su Instituto/Secretaría de Educación (SE)/ MEN?

- Variables : Qué clase de CPS existe?  
                  Quién la organiza?  
                  Para quienes se planea?  
                  Cuántas veces al año?  
                  Dónde?  
                  Por cuánto tiempo?  
                  El instituto/SE/MEN proporciona reemplazo para los que atienden CPS?  
                  Se debe pagar por los cursos, quién paga?  
                  Qué beneficios tienen los profesores que atienden los cursos?
- 2. ¿Cuál es el tema/enfoque dado a los cursos de CPS en su institución/Ciudad?

- Variables: Tiene un enfoque temático?  
                  Tiene que ver con metodología  
                  Con política educativa?  
                  Currículo?  
                  Toma de decisiones en la institución?  
                  Recursos? Otros?



3. En qué medida atienden los profesores la capacitación?

Variables:    Cuándo?  
                   Cada cuánto?  
                   Dónde? Por qué? (ej. voluntaria, obligatoria)

4. Qué clase de capacitación prefieren los profesores de Secundaria, por qué? \_\_\_\_\_

5. Los planeadores/organizadores de CPS en su institución/SE/MEN anticipan las necesidades de los profesores, en una forma general, o tratan de suplir las necesidades de grupos particulares, ej. por áreas, cambios educativos?

6. Trabaja su instituto en consorcio con la SE/MEN, Universidad/Industria, etc. en la organizacion y provisión de CPS?

Variables:    -Su instituto busca la participación de ellos, ellos lo contactan?  
                   -Quién es responsable en su instituto de coordinar estos programas con los otros?  
                   -Considera que los institutos de educación aprovechan CPS, o por el contrario, dificultan la asistencia del personal docente a los cursos?  
                   -Su instituto organiza CPS (cursos específicos)? usted participa en los cursos, cómo?

7. Cree que CPS tiene implicaciones en la vida profesional de los profesores en el salón de clase, especialmente cuando trata de métodos de enseñanza, cómo?

8. Cómo perciben los profesores la capacitación en términos de cualidad, cantidad, relevancia ?

9. Hay alguna clase de evaluación y seguimiento después que los cursos terminan?

Variables:    Qué forma toma la evaluación?  
                   Quién la hace?  
                   Cuándo?  
                   Y qué sigue luego de aplicada la evaluaci\_n?  
                   Qué forma toma el seguimiento de los entrenados/capacitados ej. observación ?

10.Cuál es en su experiencia el sitio favorito para CPS, ej. centros para profesores, hoteles, etc.?

Tiene algunas sugerencias para una FORMA IDEAL para la CPS en Colombia?

Muchas gracias por su tiempo y cooperación.

MARLENY JIMENEZ  
 PhD Student  
 University of Newcastle

11  
**INTERVIEW WITH THE FORMER DIRECTOR OF CEP IN VILLAVICENCIO  
META**

Este instrumento fue diseñado con el fin de recoger información sobre la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS). La Entrevista busca conocer su opinión sobre la organización e implementación de CPS en Colombia. También considera las diferentes oportunidades que tienen los Profesores para ascender en su carrera profesional. Su colaboración es *altamente apreciada* y cualquier información compilada será sólo conocida por la Investigadora. Además ningún nombre o individuo serán mencionados o *identificados* en los reportes.

• **Perfil del Entrevistado**

Antes de hablar sobre la Capacitación de Profesores de Secundaria (CPS), puedo preguntarle sobre su vida profesional?

- 1. Nombre(opcional)\_\_\_\_\_
- 2. En qué área esgraduado?\_\_\_\_\_
  
- 3. Ha adelantado otros estudios además del grado inicial, ej. Postgrado, etc.?\_\_\_\_\_
- 4. Cuál es su posición actual en la institución/administración de educación?\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
  
- 5. Está involucrado (de alguna manera) en la CPS, cómo? (ej. tutor,organizador,etc.)\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
  
- 6. Tuvo alguna capacitación especial fuera de los grados ya enunciados antes de involucrarse con CPS, cuál?\_\_\_\_\_

**Sobre CPS**

- 1. Cuáles son las políticas que regían CPS en el CEP que usted administró?

- Variables:    Qué clase de CPS existía?  
                  Quién la organizaba?  
                  Para quienes se planeaba?  
                  Cuántas veces al año?  
                  Dónde?  
                  Por cuánto tiempo?  
                  Los institutos proporcionaban reemplazo para los que atienden CPS?  
                  Se pagaba por los cursos, quién pagaba?  
                  Qué beneficios tenían los profesores que atendían los cursos?
- 2. Cuál era el tema/enfoque dado a los cursos de CPS en su institución/Ciudad?

- Variables:    Tenía un enfoque temático?  
                  Tenía que ver con metodología  
                  Con política educativa?  
                  Currículo?  
                  Toma de decisiones en la institución?  
                  Recursos? Otros?



3. En qué medida atendían los profesores la capacitación?

Variables: Cuándo?  
Cada cuánto?  
Dónde? Por qué? (ej. voluntaria, obligatoria)

4. Qué clase de capacitación prefirían los profesores de Secundaria, por qué? \_\_\_\_\_

5. Los planeadores/organizadores de CPS en CEP anticipaban las necesidades de los profesores, en una forma general, o trataban de suplir las necesidades de grupos particulares, ej. por áreas, cambios educativos?

6. Trabajaba su instituto en consorcio con la SE/MEN, Universidad/Industria, etc. en la organización y provisión de CPS?

Variables: -Usted buscaba la participación de ellos, o ellos lo contactaban?  
-Quién era responsable en su instituto de coordinar estos programas con los otros?  
-Considera que los institutos de educación aprovechaban CPS, o por el contrario, dificultaban la asistencia del personal docente a los cursos?  
-Su instituto organizaba CPS (cursos específicos)? usted participaba en los cursos, cómo?

7. Cree que CPS tenía implicaciones en la vida profesional de los profesores en el salón de clase, especialmente cuando trata de métodos de enseñanza, cómo?

8. Cómo percibían los profesores la capacitación en términos de calidad, cantidad, relevancia ?

9. Había alguna clase de evaluación y seguimiento después que los cursos terminan?

Variables: Qué forma tomaba la evaluación?  
Quién la hacía?  
Cuándo?  
Y qué seguía luego de aplicada la evaluación?  
Qué forma tomabaaa el seguimiento de los entrenados/capacitados (ej. observación?

10.Cuál es en su experiencia el sitio favorito para CPS, ej. centros para profesores, hoteles, etc.?

11. Tiene algunas sugerencias para una FORMA IDEAL para la CPS en Colombia?

12. Puede comentar sobre el Centro de Bilingüismo que usted administra actualmente?

Muchas gracias por su tiempo y cooperación.

MARLENY JIMENEZ,  
PhD Student  
University of Newcastle

APPENDIX D

TAPES AVAILABLE UPON REQUEST (UK 1-20)

UNITED KINGDOM

<i>TAPE 1</i>	<i>Subject A, MFL Adviser, LEA 1, NE of England</i>
<i>TAPE 2</i>	<i>Subject B, Clerical Staff, LEA 1, NE of England</i>
<i>TAPE 3</i>	<i>Subject C, MFL Teacher Trainer, University 1, NE of England</i>
<i>TAPE 4</i>	<i>Subject D, AAL, NE of England / Subject E, Deputy head of a School, NE of England</i>
<i>TAPE 5</i>	<i>Subject F, HoD/School, NE of England</i>
<i>TAPE 6</i>	<i>Subject G, Teacher Trainer in British Council Office, NE of England</i>
<i>TAPE 7</i>	<i>Subject H, Head of Language Centre, University 1, NE of England</i>
<i>TAPE 8</i>	<i>Subject I, Teacher Trainer in University 2, London</i>
<i>TAPE 9</i>	<i>Subject J, MFL Teacher Trainer in University 2, London</i>
<i>TAPE 10</i>	<i>Subject K, Senior Adviser &amp; Director LEA 2, NW of England (Manchester)</i>
<i>TAPE 11</i>	<i>Subject L , Director CPD (UDE) in University 4, NW (Liverpool)</i>
<i>TAPE 12</i>	<i>Subject M , Consultant, University 3, NW of England, (Manchester)</i>
<i>TAPE 13</i>	<i>Subject N , Senior Inspector LEA 3, NW of England, (Liverpool)</i>
<i>TAPE 14</i>	<i>Subject O, Senior Tutor CPD, University 5, Midland, (Birmingham)</i>
<i>TAPE 15</i>	<i>Subject P, MFL Senior Tutor, University 5, Midlands (Birmingham)</i>
<i>TAPE 16</i>	<i>Subject T, CPD Co-ordinator, LEA 4, Midlands (Birmingham)</i>
<i>TAPE 17</i>	<i>Subject Q, CPD (UDE), University 6, Wales (Swansea)</i>
<i>TAPE 18</i>	<i>Subject R , PE Faculty Director (CPD), University 7, Wales (Cardiff)</i>
<i>TAPE 19</i>	<i>Subject S, Assistant Director LEA 5, Wales (Cardiff)</i>
<i>TAPE 20</i>	<i>Transcript 'Birmingham the Heart of Education, LEA 4, Midlands, England</i>



**COLOMBIA (21-32)**

<i><b>TAPE 21</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 1.COL , Educational Psychologist/Teacher Trainer, Normal Nacional, Santander</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 22</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 2.COL, Secondary Teacher Trainer, Tunja, Boyaca</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 23</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 3. COL, High School Teacher, and Teacher Trainer, Tunja, Boyaca</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 24</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 4.COL , Secretary of Education Teacher Trainer, Tunja, Boyaca.</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 25</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 5.COL , Secretary of Education Teacher Trainer, Tunja, Boyaca.</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 26</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 6.COL, Secretary of Education Teacher Trainer, Meta</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 27</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 7.COL , Secretary of Education Chief, Villavicencio, Meta.</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 28</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 8.COL, Treasurer of the Secretary of Education, Villavicencio, Meta.</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 29</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 9.COL, INEM Head teacher and Teacher Trainer, Villavicencio, Meta.</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 30</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 10.COL, CEP former Director/Bilingual Centre Director, Villavicencio.</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 31</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 11.COL, Secondary Teacher &amp; Scholarships Beneficiary, Villavicencio.</b></i>
<i><b>TAPE 32</b></i>	<i><b>Subject 12.COL, Ministry of Education Assistant, Bogota.</b></i>

## APPENDIX E

*E1. In-service Training of Teachers in Colombia: Structure and Organisation*

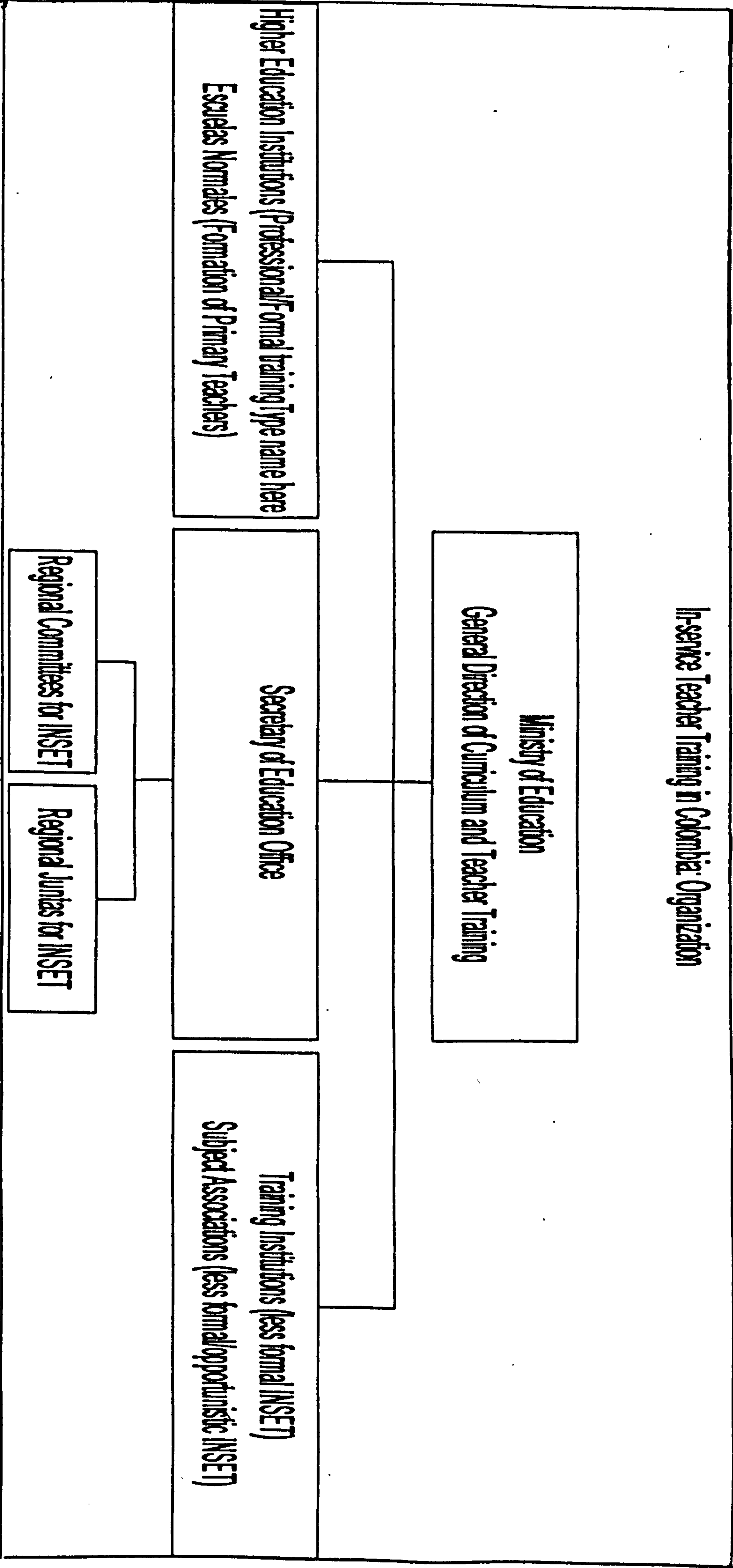
*E2. General Teaching Council for Education in Colombia and INSET*

*E3 Illustration of an Ideal Mode of INSET at Regional and Local levels in Colombia*

*E4 The Map of Colombia*

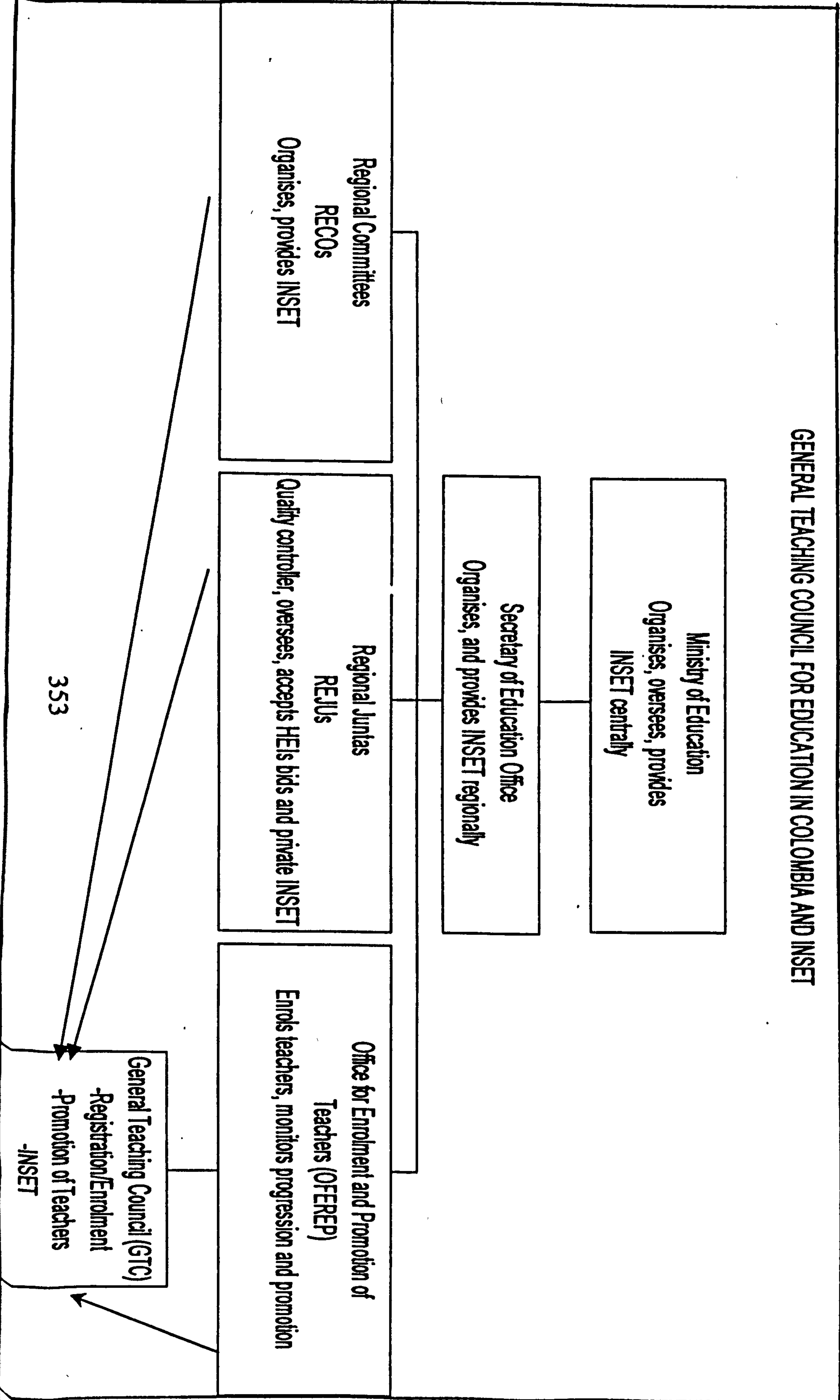


# Appendix E: 1



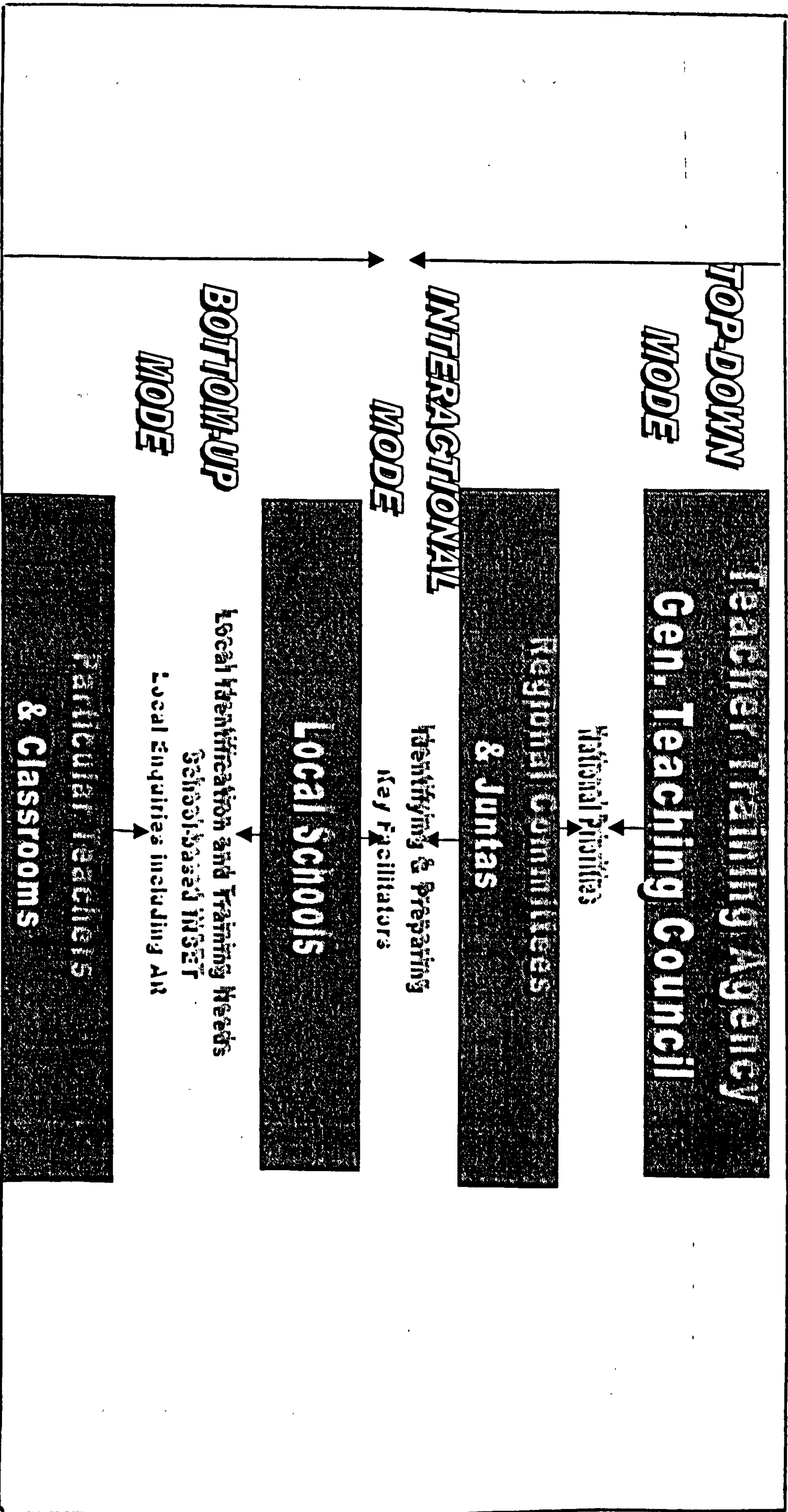
# APPENDIX E: 2

## GENERAL TEACHING COUNCIL FOR EDUCATION IN COLOMBIA AND INSET





# Appendix E: 3



## Appendix E: 4

### COLOMBIA

